

SATURDAY, JANUARY 16, 1875.

No. 141, New Series.

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LITERATURE.

Examen des Trois Règles de Droit International proposées dans le Traité de Washington. Mémoire présenté à l'Institut de Droit International (session de Genève, 1874) par M. Charles Calvo, Membre effectif de l'Institut et Membre effectif de la Seconde Commission.

THE author of the memoir which forms the subject of these remarks is well known in Europe as an international jurist of distinction, whose writings are, beside their other merits, especially commendable for the ease with which he assimilates, and the skill with which he presents, a vast amount of materials, the fruit of wide and diversified research. Clear in exposition, and elegant in style, M. Calvo is one of the few writers on International Law who understand the art of not making an enemy of the ordinary reader, and he is widely read. The honourable President of the Geneva Tribunal of Arbitration awards to him the praise of having traced in advance "la ligne sur laquelle, après un mûr examen des faits les plus compliqués, nous nous sommes rencontrés;" and if M. Adolphe Franck blames him for showing too much regard "aux idées communément reçues et à la doctrine des faits accomplis," the criticism conveys a compliment to those whose business lies in the practical sphere of International Law, which is not what an Institute of professors, however learned, may decide that nations ought to do, but what they have done hitherto.

The present memoir, which M. Calvo has republished from the *Revue de Droit International*, deals with the Three Rules of the Treaty of Washington. It traces their origin in the facts which gave rise to, and the negotiations which preceded, their adoption by the Governments of Great Britain and the United States; investigates their historical antecedents in the general principles of neutrality, in the municipal laws of different countries and their practical enforcement; compares them with the opinions of publicists; and in conclusion proposes to support them and extend their application by a general treaty or declaration which should, amongst other things, assert the inviolability of private property at sea, and make it obligatory for neutral States to prevent the trade by their subjects in contraband of war. That M. Calvo, to say the least, aims at high speculative results, can certainly not be denied, but we must admit that his treatment of the subject is in form historical. His conception of its scope is thus stated at the outset of the memoir:—

"Que sont ces trois règles? Qu'est-ce qui en a

amené la proclamation? Constituent-elles une innovation dans le droit des gens, ou ne sont-elles qu'une consécration nouvelle donnée à des pratiques antérieures? Ont-elles un caractère de généralité qui les rende obligatoires pour tous; ou sont-elles renfermées dans des limites qui n'en font encore qu'un lien entre les deux Etats qui se les sont appropriées? Reposent-elles sur des précédents historiques et trouvent-elles déjà leur sanction pratique ou morale soit dans le droit public, soit dans l'opinion des publicistes? Enfin, dans la forme sous laquelle l'Angleterre et les Etats Unis se proposent d'en suggérer l'adoption aux autres nations, constituent-elles un progrès, une conquête véritable du droit des gens, ou bien ont-elles besoin d'un complément indispensable pour produire les résultats considérables que les cabinets de Londres et de Washington se sont flattés d'y attacher? Tels sont les points, telles sont les diverses faces de la question que nous allons successivement aborder."

This is followed by a short *énoncé* of the facts which gave rise during the Civil War to the grievances alleged against Great Britain by the United States, and of the successive phases of the diplomatic controversy and negotiations which led ultimately to the Treaty of Washington. The facts are compiled from the abundant materials supplied in the cases, counter-cases, and arguments submitted on behalf of the respective Governments to the Tribunal of Arbitration, and summed up in a judgment which will be handed down to posterity as a model of eloquence and jurisprudence,—I mean the statement annexed to the last Protocol of that tribunal, under the title of "Sir A. Cockburn's Reasons for dissenting from the Award." M. Calvo lays special stress on the inefficiency of the British law for the maintenance of neutrality commonly known as the Foreign Enlistment Act of 1829, and he points out that the judicial construction which it received in the case of the *Alexandra* resulted in a "quasi-impunity," which enabled the Confederate agent Bullock to procure and equip vessels of war for the Southern States at Liverpool and elsewhere. This might lead one to suppose that the gravest and most frequent infringements of British neutrality occurred during the latter period of the war as a consequence of the judicial decision in the case of the *Alexandra*, which did not arise till 1863. Now the only two vessels out of three, in respect of the equipment of which the British Government was found wanting in "due diligence" by the Award of the arbitrators—the *Florida*, originally known as the *Oreto*, and the *Alabama*—sailed from Liverpool, the former in March, and the latter in July, 1862; and a memoir* submitted by the United States to the French tribunals in the "affaire Arman" openly admits that the measures taken by the British Government after the escape of the *Alabama* in 1862, obliged the Confederates to shift the scene of their operations and "seek in France for the market which began to fail them on the other side of the Channel."

Several pages of M. Calvo's memoir are devoted to an analysis of the Treaty, and the Award of the majority of the arbitrators. He quotes at length the masterly introduction to Sir A. Cockburn's judgment, in which the Lord Chief Justice has placed on

record his view of the general principles of law applicable to the case, and to the special question of "due diligence" left undefined by the framers of the Treaty. M. Calvo calls attention to the fact that the only dissenting judge was the one appointed by the Queen of Great Britain, and he says:—

"Un des principaux arguments mis en avant par le dissident consiste dans les entraves apportées à la liberté de jugement des arbitres par les règles que leur avait imposées le traité de Washington."

Now, such a statement, if not properly qualified, might lead one to suppose that the Lord Chief Justice grounded his dissent from the Award on his objections to the Rules; but these he explicitly accepts as binding on his own and his colleagues' judgment in the decision of the case:—

"Though of opinion that her Majesty's Government were quite right in saying that the rules laid down by the Treaty are not such as International Law would have prescribed at the time these claims arose, I agree that we are bound by the rules, and that it is our duty to give full effect to them in dealing with these claims."*

Sir A. Cockburn separates the questions which are to be decided according to the rules of the Treaty, and those for which the Treaty had supplied no principles of decision; amongst others, the all-important question of "due diligence," of the legal effect of commissions granted to Confederate cruisers, and of supplies of coal in neutral ports. These were points undetermined by the Rules, and which each member of the Tribunal had to decide according to the "general principles of International Law" so far as they were consistent with the principles of the Treaty, but without its guidance. Sir A. Cockburn's dissent was chiefly grounded on the views of International Law adopted by the majority of his colleagues—a majority composed of dissentient elements, and which sacrificed consistency to the appearance of unanimity by expressing collective opinions in the Award which it would be hard to reconcile with some of the individual opinions put forward in separate papers by each member of the Tribunal.

M. Calvo concludes his analysis of the Treaty and the Award by the following remarks:—

"Certains esprits semblent encore mettre en doute le caractère immanent et général, comme partie essentielle du droit des gens, des règles et des principes qui ont servi de base à la décision solennelle du tribunal arbitral de Genève. Au lieu d'y voir l'affirmation de principes constamment et universellement en vigueur, surtout depuis que la neutralité, avec ses droits et ses devoirs, a été admise comme le fondement des relations réciproques des nations en temps de guerre, on semble les envisager comme une innovation dans les lois internationales préexistantes, consentie exclusivement pour le cas auquel ils ont été appliqués, comme un précédent n'ayant qu'une valeur accidentelle et sans portée pour l'avenir."

And he certainly produces a great deal of authority in favour of his view that the Three Rules constitute no innovation in International Law. I have reason to believe that some of our most authorised jurists would not disagree with him in substance. Yet it is clear that the framers of the Treaty

* *Mémoire pour les Etats Unis d'Amérique* (Paris, 1868), page 4.

on both sides were conscious of innovating in some respect on previous international practice; or else, why should they have provided that the "general principles" of public law should not be construed in any sense inconsistent with the Rules, instead of providing that the Rules should not be construed in any sense inconsistent with the "general principles" of public law? And, indeed, it cannot be doubted that the words "specially adapted in part or in whole" of the first Rule extend the measure of neutral obligation from cases in which a vessel intended for the service of a belligerent is equipped and made ready for hostilities before departure to those in which she leaves the neutral port without her guns, men, or stores, but has her equipment completed afterwards from the neutral country under previously concerted arrangements. M. Calvo points out, and very justly too, that this extension of the obligation is a necessary consequence of the facilities which steam navigation affords for bringing together the component parts of a hostile expedition. But in making the Rule retrospective, it should have been remembered that the new conditions of this special kind of maritime warfare had not yet been practically illustrated when the *Alabama* sailed from Liverpool.

While giving his general approbation to the Three Rules, M. Calvo holds them to be insufficient in themselves for the purpose for which they were intended, unless supplemented by a declaration of the inviolability of private property at sea:—

"Il faut remonter à la source du mal et en prévenir le développement à son origine même. . . . Nous croyons donc que le moyen le plus efficace pour porter remède au mal, ce serait de faire entrer dans la pratique unanime et définitive des nations l'abolition de la course, et l'interdiction du commerce de la contrebande de guerre—mesures qu'avait déjà recommandées, à la suite de la guerre d'Orient, les plénipotentiaires des grandes puissances réunis en Congrès à Paris—mais en les complétant par l'adoption d'un principe qui en est, à nos yeux, le fondement en même temps que la garantie, et que les Etats Unis avaient posé comme condition de leur acquiescement à la déclaration du 16 Avril, 1856. Nous voulons parler du principe de l'inviolabilité de la propriété privée sur mer en temps de guerre."

No doubt this would be an excellent reform if war itself could be abolished. But never have we been farther from the millennium than in this nineteenth century of ours, when the whole able-bodied population of Europe is condemned to indiscriminate slaughter by the ambition of the great military monarchies. Maritime war would cease to have an object if the enemy's commerce were placed under the protection of the principle of inviolability, and military power would reign uncontrolled. It is not to be supposed that maritime nations will disarm, especially since the discussions of the Brussels Conference have thrown such light on the designs of their military rivals. M. Calvo attempts, indeed, to find historical precedent in the conduct observed by different States, but he does not show that any one great maritime power ever waived the right to seize enemy's goods at sea when it had the opportunity of exercising it. The United States have not even ad-

hered to the Declaration of Paris, which professed to abolish privateering; and if they did not issue letters of marque during the Civil War, M. Calvo himself informs us of the reason when he says:—

"Ce n'est pas que le gouvernement de Washington eût changé d'opinion; mais il craignait de paraître, en le faisant, accorder aux insurgés du Sud le caractère de belligérants et reconnaître leur indépendance comme nation."

France did certainly not waive the right of seizing private property at sea during the late war, and if the Prussian Government enjoined its naval officers to abstain from such seizures, the injunction was superfluous, considering that the Prussian navy was a prisoner in its own ports during the whole time of the war. England will certainly follow the traditional course of her maritime history, and indeed it is much more likely that she will reconsider the Declaration of Paris than accede to any new proposal for curtailing her power at sea. The Brussels Conference, and the one that Russia now proposes to convocate at St. Petersburg, have revived the question, and great pressure is brought to bear on the Government by the Press and by public meetings. Mr. Thomas Gibson Bowles has taken the initiative in a meeting lately held at Darlington, where the following resolution was put to the vote and unanimously carried:—

"That, in view of the exaggerated pretensions now publicly put forth by the military Powers of Europe, this meeting urgently calls upon Her Majesty's Government to restore to this country the possession of its natural and lawful means of national defence at sea, by advising Her Majesty to issue an Order in Council declaring that the Declaration of Paris is not binding on this country; and that the chairman be requested to forward a copy of these resolutions to the Prime Minister and the Secretary for Foreign Affairs."

Whatever opinion may be formed in the abstract upon the general question, there is no doubt that, politically, no moment could be more opportune for withdrawing from the Declaration of Paris than the present one, when the great military Powers are leagued together for the purpose of framing rules of terrestrial warfare in their own exclusive interest, and none could impugn the good faith of a nation which refused to hold itself bound any longer by an abstract assertion of principles appended to a treaty, which, though placed by its framers under the invocation of the Holy Trinity, has by the act of Russia practically ceased to exist. W. MARKHEIM.

The Straits of Malacca, Indo-China, and China; or, Ten Years' Travels, Adventures and Residence Abroad. In One Volume. By J. Thomson, F.R.G.S., Author of "Illustrations of China and its People." (London: Sampson Low & Co., 1875.)

MR. THOMSON tells us in his preface that the recollections of his travels are addressed to those readers, of whom he believes there are many, who feel an interest in the remote regions over which his journeys extended; and in that great section of the human family which peoples the vast area of China: a section, as he reminds us, which through the agency of steam and telegraphy

is being brought day by day into closer relationship with ourselves. The number of the reading public that will find in this last work of Mr. Thomson's pen and pencil both instruction and amusement not to be found elsewhere, or in an equally attractive form, we venture to predict will be large. The progress of events, the development of commerce in the Indian and China seas, and the rapid intercommunication now established by submarine cables and steam, have all combined to create a continuous and increasing interest throughout Europe in those outlying Eastern lands. Nor is this interest confined to what concerns the trade of different countries. The political and social condition of all the various nationalities into which the Asiatic race is subdivided over the vast continent and islands extending from the Dardanelles to Japan, has become matter of daily concern to thousands in the present day, where in the last generation scarcely one gave a thought to such enquiries. Nothing has so much contributed to this change as rapidity and certainty of communication. When twelve months were required for an exchange of letters between England and Canton, as was the case not fifty years ago, we all know by personal experience how difficult it is to keep up a continuous interest in persons or things so widely separated.

It would be an injustice to Mr. Thomson if in a review of his book, however hurried or superficial, all mention were omitted of his powers of observation and description, both as a naturalist and an artist. For instance, in introducing us to Penang, so well known on the China route, he gives us a page of natural history which we are certain will be new to the many passengers in the P. and O. steamers who annually touch at this little island, and drive through cinnamon and nutmeg groves to the picturesque waterfall:—

"It will hardly be credited by those who have never visited a hill country in the tropics, that soon after sunrise the noise of awakening beetles and tree-loving insects is so great as to drown the bellowing of a bull, or the roar of a tiger a few paces off. The sound resembles most nearly the metallic whirr of a hundred Bradford looms. One beetle in particular, known to the natives as the 'trumpeter,' busies himself all day long in producing a booming noise with his wings. I have cautiously approached a tree on which I knew a number of these trumpeter-beetles to have settled, when suddenly the sound stopped, the alarm was spread from tree to tree, and there was a lull in the forest music, which only recommenced when I had returned to the beaten track."

Passing from natural history and scenery, he touches on a political and social problem of no small importance, connected with the emigration of Chinese, with their characteristic virtues and vices, and draws attention to a necessity which has long been felt not only in our own colonies, but in California and the United States. He remarks that the Chinaman out of his own country, enjoying the security and prosperity which a more liberal administration confers, seems to develop into something like a new being. No longer chained to the soil by the iron fetters of a despotic government, he finds wide scope for his energies, and high rewards for his industry. But the love of combina-

tions, of the guilds and unions in which all Chinamen delight, tempts them too far:—

"They first combine among themselves to get as much out of each other as they possibly can, and when practicable to monopolise trade and rule the markets; and then, feeling the strength of their own organisation, the societies set up laws for the rule and protection of their members, and in defiance of the local government. The congsee, or guild, thus drifts from a purely commercial into a semi-mercantile semi-political league, and more than once has menaced the power of petty states, by making efforts to throw off the yoke which rested so lightly on its shoulders. The disturbances at Perak are the latest development of this tendency, and we have had many previous instances of the same insubordination in Penang, and elsewhere. Nor are these the only dangers: the feuds of the emigrants are imported with them, and break out again as soon as they have set foot on foreign soil."

And in confirmation he refers to one occasion while he was at Penang, when a village during the night had been sacked and burned by the members of an opposing clan, and it required strong measures on the part of the Government to put down these faction fights. Still more serious disturbances occurred, it will be remembered, two or three years ago at Singapore, when the whole power of the Colonial Government was for a time set at defiance. This same sort of village warfare and clan fights, is the despair of the Chinese Government in the south. At Swatow these rural clans were only brought into subjection about three years ago by a wholesale butchery, "recalling the summary dealings in 1663 (Javanese era), when the Chinese attempted to overthrow the power of the Dutch Government in Java. It has always been a difficult matter in these islands with the Chinese immigrants. Sir Stamford Raffles found it so during his enlightened administration, and he has left on record his opinion, that the "ascendency of the Chinese requires to be cautiously guarded against and restrained." Upon this subject Mr. Thomson judiciously observes:—

"This is a question which, of late years, has been forcing itself upon the attention of the United States government. They must either restrain the tide of Chinese emigration which has set in upon their shores, or amend their constitutional laws, and adopt some less liberal, though perhaps more enlightened form of special administration, enabling them to deal satisfactorily with a people who bring to their doors habits of toiling industry, the cheapest and most efficient labour, but import at the same time turbulent tempers, an objectionable religion, and some of the grossest vices that can stain the human race."

At Singapore, we get our first glimpse of the marvellous changes a few years have sufficed to bring into this British port, lying midway between India and China—a position of great commercial and even political importance. "Not many years ago," he tells us, "it was a mere desolate jungle-clad island—like hundreds of others in the Eastern seas—with a few fishermen's huts dotted here and there along its coast."

But now "A submarine cable has brought Singapore within a few hours of London, while the opening of the Suez Canal, and the establishment of new steam navigation companies engaged in the China trade, have, to a great extent, done away with the fleets of clipper-built ships that formerly

carried the produce from China and Singapore, by the long Cape route, to England. In the same way the absence of Chinese junks may be accounted for by increased facilities afforded to native, as well as foreign trade, through steam navigation in the China seas. The Chinese and the Japanese too, for that matter, are gradually learning to take the full benefit of the advantages which have thus been brought to their doors. They travel as passengers, and ship their goods, by European steamers. This is not all; they are now themselves organising steam navigation companies of their own. The trade of Singapore, save in times of unusual depression, continues steadily to advance, and since the transfer of the Straits Settlements to the Colonial Office, their commerce is reported to have increased 25 per cent."

Nor from a picturesque and artistic point of view can any Eastern home, as he describes it, be more desirable.

"If it be early morning, there is an unspeakable charm about the spot. The air is cool, even bracing; and beneath the shade of a group of forest-trees which the axe has purposely spared, we see the rich blossoms of orchids depending from the boughs, and breathe an atmosphere saturated with the perfume which these strangely beautiful plants diffuse. Songless birds twitter or croak among the foliage above, or else beneath shrubs which the convolvulus has decked with a hundred variegated flowers. Here and there the slender stem of the aloe, rising from an armoury of spiked leaves, lifts its cone of white bells on high, or the deep orange pine-apple peeps out from a green belt of fleshy foliage, and breathes its ripe fragrance around."

He admits, however, that there are certain drawbacks to a life in this earthly paradise:—

"The heat, for example, is great, and must tell on the European constitution at last. The thermometer shows an average in the shade, all the year round, of between 85° and 95° Fahr., and this high temperature tends with other influences to produce a variety of the most serious disorders which flesh is heir to in the tropics, and a multitude of minor annoyances, of which prickly heat is by no means the least troublesome."

Passing to Bangkok, on the Menam, the "Mother of Waters," and capital of Siam, we come upon a quick succession of dissolving views, where the actual present is but a confused mingling and fusion of the past, with the elements of a future yet inchoate and fluid. It was in 1865 that our traveller first landed and made the acquaintance of a native officer, in charge of the custom-house, who honoured him with an audience, "surrounded by a group of crouching slaves, by half-a-dozen children, and by as many wives." Arrived at Bangkok, he tells us:—

"The King himself is High Priest, and defender of the faith. The late monarch spent about thirty years in monastic seclusion before he ascended the throne, and the distinguished reputation for his knowledge of Sanscrit and Pali scholarship, which he subsequently enjoyed, was due to his having made the Buddhist literature his study throughout this period of his career. Late in life he turned his attention to English, and attained such a proficiency in that language as enabled him to write and converse in it with comparative ease, though with an idiomatic quaintness and force of expression by which his not unfrequent communications to the *Bangkok Recorder* were at once detected. He disliked to have his Anglo-Siamese manuscripts mutilated or corrected; and for this reason he established a royal printing-office, where his English, probably under penalty of death, was set up just as it was written down."

Another slide of the magic lantern shows us

Siam some five years later (we have to guess the date), and we find

"The first and second kings have both been gathered to their fathers, and their sons now reign in their stead. Antiquated laws and objectionable customs have passed out of date, and a liberal policy is being steadily pursued. Slavery has been abolished, and the custom of crouching in the presence of a superior has been discontinued by the express order of the sovereign. His Majesty lately visited Singapore and Calcutta, and the experiences which he gained there seem to have been taken to heart. The education which this young king received from the English governess, Mrs. Leontowens, at his father's court, must have had its effect in forming his character; while constant intercourse with foreigners, together with his own manly ambition to make the most of his inheritance, have all contributed to render his career an exceptional one in the history of his country. One might almost suppose that he has in his veins some of the blood of those ancient Cambodian rulers who built their marvellous cities and temples, who conquered and subdued the surrounding countries, and founded for themselves a mighty empire, of which no traces save their stone monuments remain. The influence of a newspaper, published partly in English and partly in the vernacular, must not be overlooked when we take account of the progress of Siam."

Here we must leave our adventurous traveller to pursue his way to the half-buried ruins of Cambodia—magnificent remains of a conquering race long extinct: and from thence to Saigon—the last effort of France to found a colony and an Eastern Empire—on to China, slowly awakening from a sleep of ages. RUTHERFORD ALCOCK.

Social Life in Greece from Homer to Menander.

By the Rev. J. P. Mahaffy, M.A., Fellow of Trinity College, Dublin. (London: Macmillan & Co., 1874.)

MR. MAHAFFY has chosen an admirable subject, at once fresh and important, and has written a very sensible, critical, and suggestive book. The social life of the Greeks, as he says in the introduction, has often been handled, especially by German and French authors. But the "ponderous minuteness" of the Germans "usually tends to obscure the general effect, and leave the ordinary reader with no distinct impression on his mind." Moreover, he has often to point out in the course of his book that the Germans are wanting in sympathy with the humorous and imaginative sides of Greek literature. They are apt to take a great deal for literal truth that was never meant as such. Mr. Mahaffy has the advantage of being one of a people with whom the imagination, if it has not attained to the Greek perfection of form, has at least the Greek freedom from the dominion of hard fact. The French writers, again, who have a good share of the natural capacities needed for the study of Greek life, are wanting in accuracy and research. "A sound knowledge of Greek has not yet been diffused among the French, and so their isolated Hellenists do not write in an atmosphere of correcting friends and carping critics." Mr. Mahaffy's work is sound throughout, showing both Greek scholarship and acquaintance with the modern literature of the subject; and it is at the same time thoroughly readable. He has made it so, not by leaving out details and quotations (which are the salt of a

book of the kind), but by confining himself to great questions and matters of lasting human interest. The standard of morals, the position of women, the relations of classes, the growth of social questions, the methods of education, the general aspects of private and public amusements—these and like topics he discusses in their bearing upon each of the main periods of Greek history.

There are few historical questions of such difficulty, and at the same time of such genuine interest, as that of the standard of morals at different periods. Or rather, we should say, the standards; for we have always to distinguish between the theory and the practice of an age, and again between the rules followed by, and towards, different classes of mankind. Literature is apt to be a very unsafe guide. The great characters of poetry move in an heroic upper region, from which the spirit of idealism excludes common actions and motives. On the other hand, the denunciations of satirists are not only apt to be sweeping and exaggerated (for which allowance might be made), but they often fail, being relative to the manners of the time, to give a clear notion of the standard which the satirist desires to set up. Hence some writers (notably Mr. Buckle) have held that Ethics do not advance with advancing civilisation. Mr. Mahaffy has contributed a chapter to this discussion by his examination of the state of morality in the Homeric age. In opposition to Mr. Gladstone, he shows that the Homeric Greeks are not better in any way than their descendants. They have the sensibility, the quickness, the delicacy of perception and expression of the Greek race, but also the treachery and cruelty, the insubordination, the neglect of the weak, which belong to barbarians, and were very slowly and partially overcome in later times. This is shown in an instance which Mr. Mahaffy justly terms crucial—the character of Athene in the *Odyssey*. It is true that the character of Achilles is free from some of these defects, especially from the vice of lying. But this is exceptional, just as any fine touch of character might be in a modern hero. To elevate truthfulness into an ordinary virtue—in our language, a “duty”—is a step which the Greeks hardly ever took. It certainly lay far beyond the range of Homeric morals.

In the chapter which Mr. Mahaffy devotes to the Greeks of the Lyric Age, the contrast between the Homeric and the later society is well brought out. In the Lyric poets, as he shows, we meet with a wholly new order of thought and feeling, answering in some measure to the changed condition of Greek politics. The passion of love—as Mr. Mahaffy points out, perhaps for the first time—acquired on the one hand a power and vehemence, on the other hand an independence of its merely physical element, unknown to the Epic poets. The change may, indeed, be traced in the later Epics (sometimes called *Cyclic*) of which the arguments have been preserved. In them we find the beginning of the use of love as the moving force of a story. It is in the Lyric poets, however, that this deification of love—this “sublimation” of a natural and universal feeling into a romantic enthusiasm—is first seen in

full force, as the leading motive of a new and brilliant type of literature.

The age of Pericles is treated by Mr. Mahaffy in a way that many scholars may be inclined at first to resent, as a period of falling off in social life, of decay of letters and arts throughout Greece, and of a hard and cruel school of morality. Along with this line of thought he makes almost a personal attack upon Thucydides, as chief spokesman of the anti-social temper of the period. At the same time he almost sets aside the authority of Aristophanes, and even Sophocles is found wanting in some respects as a representative of manners. His women are hard and masculine, the creations of a misogynist. In all this there is a good deal of true and acute criticism. The Persian war must have brought art and civilisation to a standstill all over Greece. Athens was the first to recover, but very much at the expense of the numerous states that had fallen under her supremacy. Both Thucydides and Aristophanes show how completely the political interest had swallowed up every other; nor is much to be gathered for a history of social life from the statuesque heroines of Sophocles. Mr. Mahaffy, however, treats these hard and repulsive features too much from this merely negative side, as so much drawback from the political greatness of the Periclean age. It did not, perhaps, fall within his scope to examine their relation to the history of Greek thought, but it would have been worth while to bring out more clearly that the crisis in practical morality was intimately connected with that speculative crisis to which the name *Sophistic* has been (more or less mistakenly) applied, and which really began in the age of the Lyric poets. The “more daring assertion of self-interest as opposed to principle, of force as opposed to justice,” and the “habit of casuistic dispute and of subtle equivocation” which appear so prominently in the Greeks of Thucydides, are not mere defects in morality, but are in great measure the result of the critical effort—the desire to gain a rational basis of conduct instead of mere custom and tradition. The movement began in the philosophy of the Lyric and *Gnomic* poets; and the troubled times which followed, while they gave little leisure for working out speculative problems, put the greatest possible strain upon the traditional ethics. It needed the comparative repose of the fourth century to bring about a more hopeful tone of moral speculation; and this was the work of the Sophists, and above all, of Socrates, the greatest of the Sophists. The work, however, had not been done in the time of Thucydides, and it is a mistake to try the speakers in his history, or the historian himself, by standards to which men were only then beginning to feel their way.

The advance from the Periclean to the succeeding age—the age of Socrates and the Middle Comedy—is carefully worked out through the later chapters (viii.–xii.). The first signs of the change are traced in Euripides, whom Mr. Mahaffy defends against ancient and modern attacks. So far as such things are matter of argument, the defence is on the whole successful. Euripides was a realist in poetry, that is to say, he sought

to bring a wider range of ideas and subjects within the range of ideal treatment. Whether in doing so he preserved the poetical elevation of Sophocles is a question of taste on which Mr. Mahaffy does not enter; most scholars would say that he falls very much below his predecessors in that respect. This, however, makes his poetry the more valuable as an evidence of social condition; and accordingly, we are able to trace in him the greater gentleness and more reflective temper which belong to the Athens whose empire was over the manners and minds of Greece. The characteristic features of this greater and more enduring Athens are brought out by Mr. Mahaffy with skill and sympathy; especially the small size of the city—“producing a certain unity and harmony in Athenian culture;” the separation of the sea-port, so that “a certain aristocratic flavour must have ever dwelt about the Athenian, and led to a general feeling of selectness and refinement;” the large leisure enjoyed by the citizens; the love of speculative discussion, the comparative humanity of warfare, the beginning of better notions on the position and duties of women. The position and character of certain occupations, as physicians, cooks, and fishmongers, is happily discussed. The comparison of ancient and modern life is kept steadily in view, and their respective advantages are brought out with a candour, a balance of judgment, and a genial tact that could not be excelled. Mr. Mahaffy is especially happy in insisting on the—

“modernness of Attic life and the contrast of what we call the Middle Ages to both that life and to our own. We are in some respects only coming up to the level attained by the Greeks; in some respects they were striving to attain our level; but we should class both the Greeks and ourselves as developed nations, whereas mediæval culture was rather an early and blind groping towards politics and humane society.”—(P. 344.)

This is a truth long ago insisted upon by Arnold: it is applied by Mr. Mahaffy with fine perception of the essence of Greek civilisation.

The problem of education, for instance, presented itself under conditions in some respects parallel to those of the most modern times. The Greek habit of teaching morality by means of the Epic legends has given rise to the saying that Homer was the “Bible of the Greeks.” Mr. Mahaffy points out how universally the Greeks believed that Homer composed his poems with a direct moral aim, and compares the use now made of parts of the Old Testament. “I do not know,” he adds in a note, “whether any better system of education will be discovered than this moral interpretation of documents, venerable in age and of extreme literary excellence. Certain it is that all civilised men have proceeded on this plan, and no other has yet been tried with success” (p. 328). The remark is striking, and not without bearing on very recent controversy. Mr. Mahaffy is inclined to undervalue the Sophistic and Socratic training—the moral and political discussion which was added in the later Attic period to the traditional music and gymnastic. “Socrates,” he says, “never even hinted at a test to distinguish serious

and useful conversation from idle subtleties and wordy waste of time." The distinction, surely, is one that could not have been made in the time of Socrates, since it presupposes the settlement of logical and philosophical questions that were then raised for the first time. In some respects Mr. Mahaffy claims the advantage for the ancient system, namely, in the stricter moral supervision exercised over boys, in consequence of the peculiar moral risk to which they were liable. They thus retained a "modesty and freshness which is worn off our boys by the soil of school life, and which now no longer dwells among us, save in our delicately brought up girls."

The chapter on Religious Feeling in the Attic Age is full of accurate and thoughtful remarks. Although the topic is not a new one, the analysis given on pp. 350-352 of the intimate connexion between religion and amusement is singularly well put. The result, it is shown, was that "earnestness in Greek pleasure," that "seriousness in sport," which has been reached from a very different point of view by the very un-Hellenic English nation. The Greeks, however, understood the dangers of professional athleticism, and regulated their gymnastics for educational purposes in a way that our authorities have neither the science nor the moral courage to imitate. D. B. MONRO.

Ecclesiastical History in England. The Church of the Revolution. By John Stoughton, D.D. (London: Hodder & Stoughton, 1874.)

In these pages, which form the concluding volume of a series, Dr. Stoughton brings his account of English Church history in the seventeenth century to a close. The period embraced is little more than the reign of William III., an era pregnant with important results in relation to our ecclesiastical institutions—results, however, which he does little here to elucidate, as he justly observes that they "are to be ascertained only through a careful study of the great religious movements of the eighteenth century." Of the possibility of himself following out the history of these movements at some future day, he speaks somewhat doubtfully; but, however that may be, the five volumes which he has published will always bear honourable testimony to his great industry and research, and to the spirit in which his investigations have been prosecuted.

We cannot but think, however, that in the present volume Dr. Stoughton's labours might have been distributed more advantageously for his readers; for while, on the one hand, he has devoted the greater part of his first three chapters to an account of William of Orange and of political events in the three years preceding the accession—an account which, though carefully authenticated by independent enquiry, really adds but little to what may be found in Macaulay—on the other hand, though English Church history in the latter part of the seventeenth century can be made intelligible only by frequent reference to the state of religious parties and of religious feeling on the Continent, he has almost entirely omitted to bring under notice what was so strictly relevant to

his subject. Occasionally, indeed, we meet with passages which would incline us to conjecture that his own researches have been confined too strictly to what was passing on this side the Channel: the following sentences, for example, if not written under a misapprehension, are certainly calculated to leave an erroneous impression on the mind of the reader. Speaking of the continental policy of William in the year 1687-8, Dr. Stoughton observes:—

"He even decoyed the Pope into his toils, by baits which did more credit to his statesmanship than to his honesty. He persuaded his Holiness to advance money for an attack, as he thought, upon France, in reality upon England. Rome, ever trying to overreach others, was herself overreached; and help, supposed to be rendered for the humiliation of a power then inimical to the Papal Court, came to be applied to the overthrow of a Papal sovereign, and the strengthening of the cause of European Protestantism."

"Throughout the business," he adds in a note, "it was diamond cut diamond." The authority on which these observations are made is a letter—and a very remarkable letter it is—a translation of which may be found in one of the Appendices to Dalrymple's *Memoirs of Great Britain and Ireland*. It was written towards the close of the year 1687, by the Cardinal d'Estrées, when ambassador at Rome, to Louvois, the French minister. The Cardinal had managed to secure the treacherous services of Le Petit, clerk to the Pope's confidential secretary, Count Cassoni; and Le Petit, in exploring his master's bureau, had discovered the whole correspondence between William and the Papal Court. He reported that—

"the English had agreed with the Prince of Orange to dethrone King James II., and place the Princess of Orange, his daughter, upon the throne, and consequently her husband William; that the English were also resolved to take away the life of their King, and of the Prince of Wales if the Queen was brought to bed of a son; and that the Prince of Orange was not to go into Germany to command the Emperor's troops; that it was only a mere pretence to amuse the Pope and the public, in order that they might have no suspicion of this prince's wanting to raise himself to the throne of England; and that for certain the holy father knew nothing of this fatal intrigue against King James II., for he had been only made to believe that the Prince of Orange was to go to Germany."

Now even if we were prepared to accept this letter as correct in the main, it is evident that it contains more than one gross exaggeration; while, as it is, we are in possession of facts which place the relations then existing between William and the Papal power in an altogether different light. We know that the former was aiming, at this very time, not simply at the crown of England, but also at confederating Europe in a league against French ascendancy. We also know that, in the relations then existing between France and Rome, it appeared to Innocent XI. far more important that the arrogance of Louis XIV. should be checked, than that a Catholic king should wear the English crown. The Roman *Curia*, again, was hostile to the Jesuits, whom the monarchs of France and England were supporting with all their influence. And hence Ranke has given it as his deliberate opinion that Innocent was fully apprised of William's designs. His view is evidently shared by Macaulay,

who has noted the singular fact that when the project of the Protestant leader in relation to this country had become a *fait accompli*, his success was regarded with almost unalloyed satisfaction by all the Catholic powers except France, by the *grandees* of Castile, and by the Sovereign Pontiff; though it is difficult to understand how Innocent could have derived any pleasure from finding himself completely outwitted. But, in fact, the policy of James was looked upon as suicidal by all dispassionate observers, and so early as 1685, Burnet tells us, in his *Own Times*, that when at Rome he was assured by Cardinal Howard, "that they were sorry to see the King engage himself so in the design of changing the religion of his subjects, which they thought would create him so much trouble at home that he would neither have leisure nor strength to look after the common concerns of Europe."

There is a certain superficial resemblance in the position of the Nonjurors to that of the nonconforming clergy in 1662, as alike sufferers "for conscience sake," which leads us to turn with some interest to Dr. Stoughton's estimate of the scruples entertained by the former. He does not refer to any of the literature of the subject, nor does he go quite so far as Macaulay, who characterises the Nonjurors' theory as "a superstition as stupid and degrading as the Egyptian worship of cats and onions;" but he briefly disposes of the whole question by that abstract method of treatment which, in deciding upon historical phenomena, is at once so easy and so fallacious. He declares himself "unable to discover the reasonableness" of these scruples, and urges (1) that the case of the nonjuring clergyman "was no worse than that of civilians and ordinary men;" and that "an officer of the Customs or the captain of a regiment might very well feel the same scruples as troubled the rector of a parish or the dean of a cathedral;" and (2) that "the men who showed so much sensitiveness with respect to their former oaths were, many of them, the very same persons, and all of them belonged to the same class, as those who had treated with contempt or indifference like difficulties on the part of the Presbyterians at the time of the Restoration." The first criticism, coming from such a quarter, seems rather surprising; for it implies that the professed ministers of religion are no more bound to set an example of the conscientious observance of religious obligations than the layman; or, to put it in another form, that the discredit attaching to a violated oath would not have fallen much more heavily on the former than on the latter. It is certain that if such had been the prevalent view in the seventeenth century, there would be considerable difficulty in explaining the peculiar tenacity with which King James adhered, to the last, to his belief in the loyalty of the bishops. Dr. Stoughton's second argument has much greater abstract force, but unfortunately it is one which the position assumed by the Nonjuror excluded from the latter's consideration. Holding, as he did, the paramount and unalterable obligation involved in the oath of allegiance to the King *de jure*, all oaths taken in contravention of that oath appeared to him simply as crimes to be repented of. If a Presbyte-

rian clergyman had signed the Covenant, his position was no more deserving of sympathy than that of some soldier of fortune who might have taken an oath of fidelity to a freebooting captain in violation of his sworn allegiance to his rightful sovereign. This theory was defended by the Nonjurors as the keystone of political faith, and it is only just that in deciding on its "reasonableness" they should be heard in their own defence. The "Defence" which Lake, Bishop of Chichester, drew up on his deathbed, and on which Macaulay lays most stress, is really for this purpose of little value, being rather a declaration than a vindication of the author's sentiments. A far better illustration will be found in a series of letters on the subject between Ambrose Bonwicke, who was ejected as a Nonjuror from the mastership of Merchant Taylors' School, and his friend Blechynden, a Fellow of St. John's, Oxford, who had taken the oaths. The position of the Nonjuror, as there maintained by Bonwicke, gives us an exact parallel to that in which the loyal Catholic stood to the Head of the Church. The Pope, the latter held, might be a bad man; his private life might be a scandal to Christendom, and his State policy of a kind calculated to bring discredit on the faith and scatter discord among the nations; but he was still God's vicegerent on earth, and facts like these could in no way justify the sin of schism. Precisely similar was the theory of the Nonjuror with respect to the temporal power. "No resistance," says Bonwicke, in his final reply to his antagonist, "no resistance upon any pretence whatever, is a plain rule that exposes us only to the inconveniences of tyranny; but if every man must be the judge of the actions of his prince, and quit his allegiance whenever he thinks the coronation oath broken, there can be no such thing as peace." The duty involved was of a primary order, and one with which no ulterior considerations could possibly do away; the Nonjuror could no more consent to transfer his allegiance than the primitive Christians could comply with the command to throw incense upon pagan altars. "If," says Lake, "the oath had been tendered at the peril of my life, I could only have obeyed by suffering."

In his fourth chapter Dr. Stoughton gives a detailed account of the scheme of Comprehension and of the so-called Toleration Act which occupied the Parliament of 1689, and his research and criticism render this chapter the most valuable portion of his work. The student will be glad to find in the Appendix the original Bill of Comprehension from the Lords' Journal, together with the alterations made in committee. Dr. Stoughton's investigations have brought to light the fact, overlooked by Macaulay and other writers, that the Commons initiated a Comprehension Bill of their own, independently of that passed by the Lords, during the time that the latter was in progress in the Upper House. In this they definitely rescinded the penal statutes against Dissenters, which the Lords simply suspended. The Bill, as is well known, was shelved by a counter device of petitioning His Majesty to summon Convocation. It is difficult to say whether this was owing, as Macaulay suggests, solely to the machinations

of the High Church party. "The whole atmosphere," says Dr. Stoughton, "seems to have been laden with duplicity . . . and there is reason to believe that if not the parents, yet the nurses and sponsors of the Bill had no objection to have the child perish in its cradle." That the Dissenters themselves were not of one mind he readily admits, but he thinks the instances were extremely rare wherein, as Macaulay has conjectured, the scheme was opposed by Nonconformist divines as likely to result in a diminution of their incomes. He, however, fully agrees with the same authority in regarding the attempt as "too late." Dissent had acquired an organisation and institutions of its own, and preferred the freedom conferred by the Toleration Act to the opportunity of reabsorption and loss of its distinctive character.

With regard to the Act "for exempting their Majesties' Protestant subjects dissenting from the Church of England from the penalties of certain laws," Dr. Stoughton notes as "a curious fact" that the word "toleration" was not used in the Bill from beginning to end. Of the measure itself he speaks with unwonted enthusiasm, and characterises it as "one among a number of instances in which a change comes over the legislative enactments of a nation through a change wrought in the minds of rulers, wrought also in the minds of a people,—the *Zeit-Geist* or spirit of the age,—produced by the discipline of circumstances and by sympathetic impulses." It is very rarely that Dr. Stoughton favours his readers with a generalisation like this, and indeed, in one of his prefaces, he speaks somewhat disparagingly of such disquisitions as "comparatively easy" when contrasted with the labours of a careful and painstaking investigation of facts. Perhaps no work deserves to take rank as history which is not the result of a combination of patient enquiry and sound induction; but one thing is certain, that it is much easier to put forth crude and incorrect generalisations than right ones, and in the foregoing instance it is at least questionable whether the comments are not a total misapprehension. At any rate, we think that in thus completely ignoring and setting aside the criticism of his illustrious predecessor in this portion of English history, Dr. Stoughton has exposed himself to the charge of a slight defect of courtesy. Readers of Macaulay's brilliant narrative will not require to be reminded that it is in connexion with the Toleration Act that he has left us one of the most interesting generalisations that ever proceeded from his pen, in a few masterly observations (for which Guizot had already furnished hints, and which Mr. Freeman has so emphatically echoed), on the characteristic spirit of English legislation. In the eleventh chapter of his History he points out that, though the Toleration Act "did what a law framed by the utmost skill of the greatest masters of political philosophy might have failed to do," and "approaches very nearly to the idea of a great English law," it notwithstanding does not only not recognise the principle of toleration but "positively disclaims it." "The English," he says, "in 1689, were by no means disposed to admit the doctrine

that religious error ought to be left unpunished. That doctrine was just then more unpopular than it had ever been." In short, the Toleration Act was a partial and inequitable removal of grievances for the purpose of conciliating those whose sympathy and support it was just then very inconvenient for the Government to lose. Now if this criticism be correct, and it certainly seems to be quite in harmony with all the facts, it is evident that Dr. Stoughton's view is, to say the least, far too enthusiastic in its conception. At any rate, the *Zeit-Geist* did nothing for the Roman Catholics, against whom the laws with which James had dispensed were re-enforced with new vigour.

The latter part of the volume is principally devoted to short sketches of eminent ecclesiastics, Nonjurors, and Nonconformists of the time, and there is also a brief account, compiled chiefly from Woodward, of the religious societies which trace back their origin to this period.

Throughout the whole work Dr. Stoughton exhibits great impartiality and candour, and his criticisms are distinguished by their freedom from the bias of party; but, notwithstanding, it is sufficiently apparent that, beyond the mere investigation of facts, he aims at the illustration of a principle. Conscientiously opposed to the connexion between Church and State, he selects for special prominence whatever would seem to show the disadvantages and evils resulting from such a connexion; his use of such opportunities is, however, quite legitimate, and the volume well deserves the attention of many who do not share his views. J. BASS MULLINGER.

Our Autumn Holiday on French Rivers. By J. L. Molloy. (London: Bradbury, Agnew & Co., 1875.)

EVERYONE who has taken a share in a boating voyage for boating's sake, and who has the *instinct du canotage* by nature, knows from experience that during such an expedition the mind gets into a state so far elevated above the condition of ordinary mortals who travel in coaches and railway-trains that it laughs at all evil and inconvenience, whilst every good and pleasant thing that comes in the way by accident is appreciated with infinitely more enjoyment than it would be in the exacting temper of every-day civilised existence. If the *canotier* could but preserve the same feelings after the voyage was over, he would not only be one of the happiest of mortals, but he would certainly be a brilliant example of the very wisest kind of practical philosophy. That art of contending against the evils of existence and of enjoying to the utmost the good things which it offers, that art of being happy which has been said, and truly, to be worth more than riches to its enviable possessor, the true *canotier* has mastered. The danger is that by neglecting to practise the art of happiness on dry land during those months of the year in which boating yields its place to more serious pursuits, he may gradually forget it, gradually become less and less genial, good-tempered, patient, charitable, merry, and more and more peevish, irritable, exacting, difficult to please. Mr. Molloy has seized, I imagine, the proper time for writing an

account of his autumn holiday on French rivers. A man who has been on a boating excursion is like a sponge that has been dipped in ether, the ether representing the ethereal boating temper. It evaporates very quickly afterwards, and the evaporation chills. Mr. Molloy has taken good care to write before the ether had time to evaporate, and the result is a book which preserves more perfectly than any other boating book I ever read the gaiety and good temper which boating fosters and encourages. It is easy to imitate these feelings so far as to make a book amusing, and a clever literary artist, however ill-tempered a wretch in reality, might no doubt write in the comic vein if he wanted to make a comedy, just as a dull painter may use bright colours if they make his picture saleable; but we know by a single test that the good temper in this book is genuine—the author is so charitable. He is always ready to laugh at what is laughable, but his perfect charity penetrates everywhere like sunshine. Few travellers in a foreign country escape from the vice of criticising unkindly what they are not accustomed to at home. Mr. Molloy never does this, but on the other hand, when anything strikes him as amusing, he does not feel bound to pass it in silence, he laughs at it openly and heartily. He tells his story with great rapidity, making it rather a succession of situations, often exceedingly comic, than a narrative, and by this system he crowds more character and incident into one volume than the regular narrator would have put in twice the space.

The plan of the voyage is simply to go up the Seine and down the Loire. It is astonishing that Mr. Molloy and his friends should have been imprudent enough to go in a boat without a deck, so that she was always in danger of getting swamped in a little rough water, and actually did get swamped near Rouen, merely because the Seine was as rough as it very frequently is. Another almost unpardonable imprudence was to tolerate a non-swimmer in the boat, whatever may have been the charms of his society on shore. Non-swimmers may be permitted to *subscribe* to boats—that is their proper function in regard to boating—but they should never be permitted to get into them. Fancy having such a companion in an adventure like the following! "Two" is the man who cannot swim.

"This looks about the last of it!" said Two.

"It was the biggest squall yet, and we could see it hurling up the long four miles, and stretching from bank to bank. It looked as if for the moment it had conquered the tide, and was driving it back to the sea."

"There was a great *swish*."

"The waters closed in the usual way."

"On reappearing everyone looked for Two, and there was a moment of painful suspense."

"He came up with his glass in his eye—fortunately close to the boat, to which he clung with decided instinct—and gasped out,—

"I know a fel—"

"But he had swallowed so much water that he could only point. It was a boy on the bank, looking a long way off. We shouted to him, but either he did not hear or we frightened him, for he took to his heels like lightning."

"But Bow was nowhere to be seen."

"Good Heaven! could he possibly—"

"May have stuck to his seat," said Three.

"The boat was keel upwards. We looked—no Bow."

"Two, still full of water, pointed shorewards."

"About a hundred yards away was a straw hat bobbing up and down, washed over and hidden at intervals by the waves. We concluded Bow must be somewhere about it, for no hat, not even the helmet, could have travelled the distance in the time."

"We drifted back towards the middle of the river, where the current was still strongest. Oars, sculls, dressing bags, floor boards, jackets, and everything we had going off on independent excursions. Through the gloom of the shipwreck a smile like sunrise dawned on Two's face, as he telegraphed to Stroke to look at Cording * floating like a cork, tranquil and impassive on the face of the waters. The bolster was triumphant, the delicate Russias † were sinking."

"Stroke swam out to save the artist and another bag which were in imminent danger. Gyp, ‡ who had been perched on the keel, and wondering what we were playing at, woke up suddenly to the discovery, and sprang after. This was grander than stones. § The waves were a little disconcerting, but he paddled manfully through them till he came among the *débris*, and, singling out the biggest, began tugging resolutely at Cording."

It might have been ten minutes when we saw Bow turn back and swim towards us. He seemed to move feebly and with effort. We were laughing at him as he drew near, but quickly stopped when we saw the expression on his face. He was all but drowning, and making desperate efforts to reach us. We were on the wrong side, but before we had time two last strokes brought him to the boat, upon which he fell in utter exhaustion. His clothes and boots, and, above all, a heavy woollen Guernsey, had been too much for him, and before he was half-way were dragging him down. He could go no further; and even as it was, had he not been an excellent swimmer, would never have returned. He said himself, only a few yards more and it might have been hopeless."

"Even shipwreck may become monotonous. We drifted on for three-quarters of an hour—no one in sight, and no possible help at hand; and then—no one saw where it came from—a boat bore down upon us, and, welcome sight, a man in a blue blouse."

This comes of having a long boat (forty feet long), with a low freeboard and no deck. Get her into a chopping sea, and no seamanship in the world can prevent her from filling. She cannot rise and fall between the little waves, which simply topple over the gunwale into her, till filling becomes only a question of time—and not of much time. A decked canoe would have gone through it all with no other inconvenience than wetting the deck, and perhaps the apron. The very next time Mr. Molloy and his friends go out in the *Marie* after their shipwreck, they are near being swamped again. After that they put the boat on the deck of a river tug, and send it a good distance up stream, while they travel and amuse themselves by land. Then they induce different temporary co-swains to embark on board the *Marie*. One is a small boy, the son of a pilot, who leaves his father for the first time and in tears ('tis well he was not drowned); another a stiff, elderly man, who, after sitting so long in a constrained position, declared that he had

* The author means a waterproof bag made by Cording.

† Bags of Russia leather containing part of the luggage.

‡ A little dog who took part in the expedition.

§ The little dog in question had a habit of fetching stones for his amusement, which ruined his teeth.

"grand mal à l'estomac;" but we are glad to learn that repeated doses of Cognac were found to be a speedy and soothing remedy.

All the party stop at Paris because two out of the four are invalided. They go to Meurice's, like green Englishmen, and afterwards don't like to think about the bill. Evidently they enjoyed themselves far more and lived quite as well in the cheap country inns. At this time two of the party have a trip to Paray-le-Monial to see the pilgrims at the shrine. They then resume the oar, but have to go back to Paris, putting up this time at the Bedford instead of Meurice's, "which only turned out to be from Scylla to Charybdis." Beyond Ivry they make acquaintance with a French crew in a sort of yacht-barge with a roomy deck cabin, "fitted up inside with hammocks and every possible comfort. This was at once a *salon*, *salle à manger*, kitchen, and studio, for the crew were artists. They had sail and oars, but did not object to being towed when the opportunity offered."

At Fontainebleau the *Marie* is put on a waggon and taken by road to Orleans, the crew becoming pedestrian. At Orleans they take the water again, and greatly enjoy this voyage.

"Most of our readers will probably have seen all these towns and many parts of the Loire. But it will have been by diligence or rail—shooting suddenly from a tunnel into the heart of the city, and with passing glimpses of the river—for no steamers can ascend above Tours—and Gien, Orleans, Beaugency, Blois, and Amboise are accessible by land only. In no way but the way we travelled is it possible to see what these places really are, and how they are inseparable from the river."

"But for the risk of wearying we could dwell for pages on this one great charm of our wanderings. The happy independence of our little boat—the first on these waters, where none but fishermen had yet passed. Dropping down to these old cities, seeing the towers, churches, and castles open out from so many points of view, and with ever-changing aspect; lying, perhaps, for an hour in one spot in the lazy delight of only looking. Leaving them again, and seeing them die in the vague blue of the distance as we went once more into the loneliness of the river."

They left the Loire at Nantes, going by a canal and small river to Redon, where the cruise ended, as two of the crew found that they had not time for any more boating that season.

In the course of his narrative Mr. Molloy introduces a good deal of French, which gives fidelity of local colour—and his French is the real thing, well remembered or accurately imitated, with hardly ever a mistake. He amuses himself with the more defective French of his companions, one of whom apostrophises a cab-driver as *cochon*, not pleasing him thereby; while another gravely informs a French general that after the upset they had been *quarante-cinq minutes dans l'eau*.

There are many other good things in the book which might be quoted, but I wish to say something about the illustrations, by Mr. Linley Sambourne. Mr. Sambourne sketches the figure with much truth and spirit, so that the book owes much to him (as Mr. Molloy gracefully acknowledges). There are many sketches in the book which are as good in their way as anything possibly can be.

"Just in time," page 30, is one of these. Two of the party have been buying provisions in the town of Havre. They arrive at the quay "just in time" to catch the steamer, on board of which the *Marise* is already safe and snug, and they have to get down a perpendicular ladder encumbered as they are with bottles, a loaf more than a yard long, and the little dog. The doggie is let down by a rope, and his canine sense of peril is rendered to the life. Indeed, the dog is always thoroughly well done, whatever his attitude, and however minute he may be. There is much character, too, in the landscape sketches, some of which, like those of Blois and Amboise, quite convey the feeling of being actually on the Loire. The sketch of *Samois* is like a clever bit of etching. But now comes a piece of criticism which must be expressed, though it seems ungracious to close a notice of so pleasant a book with anything disagreeable. The plain truth is that a great many of the illustrations are utterly ruined by a frightful mannerism. They are coarse imitations of very coarse pencil drawings, in which broad ragged lines, parallel to each other, or nearly so, are made to do duty for shading, to the destruction of all natural texture, and very often of natural detail too. Let us take the sketch of Poissy as an example. The trees and bushes are shaded with big coarse lines, diagonal or horizontal, which resemble nothing in nature, certainly not the mysterious shade of foliage. The crossed vertical and horizontal shading on the barge and house resembles a portcullis or the bars of a prison-cell. The shading on costume is often so coarse that it might stand for a representation of broad stripes were it not that the same stripes cover trees and boats and river-bank and sky. In some of the illustrations there is even a laborious reproduction of rotten lines, that is, lines like those in a badly-bitten etching. All this is simply deplorable, and the more so that it is the only evidence of bad taste in the whole book, for even the binding is a beautiful piece of true grotesque invention, in which the river, the boat and crew, and many other things are introduced with great skill and quite in the right manner for work of that kind. Having closed the book, we are still glad to see on the outside of it the merry companions who have been companions of our own as we read it. Let us wish them another such voyage, with plenty of peaches to eat and pretty girls to admire (in all honour and innocence), these being apparently their chief delights in the sunny land of France.

P. G. HAMERTON.

Indian Famines; their Historical, Financial, and other Aspects. By Charles Blair, Executive Engineer, Indian Public Works Department. (London and Edinburgh: William Blackwood & Sons, 1874.)

By the partial but far-spreading visitation of the past year, the Bengal Famine of 1769-70 has been repeated in something closely resembling a centenary form: but how different are the circumstances in the two cases! The first calamity, watched by human eye, but barely met by disinterested

human effort, did its fearful and fatal work unchecked till it had carried off ten millions of human beings, or nearly one-sixth of the population of existing Bengal. The deaths we have now to deplore are so few that it is almost a question whether they can be called extraordinary. Of the achieved disaster the progress was noiseless, and hushed the report. In direct antagonism to the prevented evil, statesmen, administrators, theorists, executives, men of divers grades and callings, threw themselves eagerly forward; while the press assiduously and devotedly chronicled results. It is true that in the time of Verelst and Cartier there were neither steamers nor telegraphs, and that all news from India, whether of Haidar Ali, the Marhattas, Oudh or Nepal politics, or local famine or disease, was received but in tardy instalments, few and far between; but the modicum of attention given by the British public to India in those early days of Oriental dominion was perhaps mostly taken up with the matter of new relations then established between His Majesty's Government and the East India Company, regulating the money demand of the former, and limiting the dividends and independent action of the latter. That the famine of 1770, especially severe as it was in India, was not wholly confined to that region, may however be gathered from the testimony of the periodical press to the state of things in Germany and Bohemia:—

"A course of inclement or irregular seasons in some countries, and the miseries of war in others, had occasioned, we are told, a general scarcity of corn, which was more or less felt in every part of Europe. Indeed, the first of these causes, as well as the effect, was unhappily extended to some of the remotest parts of the globe, of which Bengal and several countries in the southern hemisphere afforded melancholy examples."*

There has been no lack of official enquiry into the causes of the recent Indian famine; nor are strictly official papers the only records to which future administrators may refer for elucidation of this all-important subject. It is to be lamented that agencies like those put in operation for arresting the progress of the visitation, agencies which moreover ensure the registration of data calculated to forefend renewed destruction of life, were not similarly in vogue for the famines of Persia and Asia Minor—the first of which has just passed away from the land, while the second still continues to exercise its deadly influence. The great matter now to be considered is prevention. And prevention should be of a nature to entail neither extraordinary effort nor extraordinary expenditure. Such results, however much to be relied on by precedent, are inadmissible, as surely recurring remedies, by the laws of common sense.

Sir Bartle Frere, in his lecture on the late impending Bengal famine, has assailed the views of those economists who would, in India, make all outlay immediately profitable, yet, in England, have no objections to urge against London and Westminster bridges and the Thames Embankment: has expressed an opinion that "great works of irrigation and internal navigation" are

* *Annual Register*, 1771: "History of Europe," chap. viii.

the best safeguards against scarcity in time to come; and has instanced the Deccan surveys and assessments in support of the theory that systematic regard to the condition of the people, and acquaintance, void of undue interference, with their wants and ways, as individuals and in communities, may bring about a healthy relation to Government which would fairly protect the settled Indian district from the ravages of famine (pp. 33, 67). Since the publication, however, of his instructive and interesting contribution to what may be designated the literature of the particular crisis under review, a work has issued from the press which its mere title shows to be of a yet more comprehensive character. Mr. Charles Blair, of the Indian Public Works Department, has produced a small compact volume, well written and well printed enough to invite general perusal; and this gentleman is of opinion, after a fair amount of practical experience, that "famines will recur in India for ever, unless some vast climatological change occurs," a prospect on which he naturally declines to speculate. He adds: "There are various possible methods of mitigating and alleviating such disasters, but to prevent them *in toto*, is, I think, *altogether beyond our control*." We have italicised the last four words as they are weighty and very pertinent.

The book consists of seven chapters, of which the last only professes to deal directly with preventive and mitigative measures, though the preceding matter is perhaps equally suggestive of true remedial action. Migration to favoured districts is approved; irrigation is discussed, and the increase of wells especially recommended; and the importance of opening out the country by road, rail, and canals, as well as all other means of communication, is acknowledged; but it is considered rather Utopian "to suppose that irrigation will ever be able to complement a failure of the rainfall." Arguments are cited in favour of the importation of grain, and useful hints thrown out for fostering any staple article of commerce peculiar to a suffering district, and avoiding the excessive cultivation of certain lucrative crops to the detriment of the more essential cereals. But the natural apathy and caste prejudices of the people are alluded to as opposing a heavy bar to wholesome reforms; and we involuntarily ask whether education is not after all the greatest *desideratum* in securing that intelligent self-help on the part of the "raiya" which can alone set the Government mind at ease in respect of its Indian millions? At present Mr. Blair truly tells us (pp. 202, 203):—

"The idea of a liberal relief by Government is fostered in every one's heart, which is not an encouraging sign: it engenders a feeling of dependence. Government has and should exact its unqualified right to demand that each one will act prudently; that he will exercise thrift in the expenditure of food, and so tend to economise, or in other words to increase, the food supplies. And this is all the more important in India. There it is the custom of the population to subsist for the greater part of the year on their own private stores; they depend to a very small extent on the markets for the provision of food. It is on account of this principle of economising food supplies that Government acts judiciously in

withholding information from the general public as to the amount of relief that it is prepared to give."

We cordially subscribe to the opinion last expressed. But unfortunately the action forced upon the State, and efficiently promoted by private liberality this last year, and which may be repeated in any year, is opposed to the inculcation of this principle of economy. A precedent has been established which is interpreted that there *will* be relief, if required; and this precedent is not one to be disregarded. Those who have lived in India cannot fail to have observed, even in their own private households, how sharply a chance practice once introduced is caught up by the native retainers, and, unless authoritatively checked, converted into inveterate habit.

The inexpediency of Government importing food from a distance while the same measure is open to private speculation, a dictum quoted from Mill, is aptly questioned on the strength of an argument derived from the Indian famine of 1874. Mr. Blair thinks that the action taken by Government on this occasion "will act as a strong stimulus to the trading population in the matter of importation, and that it will be of untold benefit in future dearths." He sees in it, already, good results, "because the private importations being made are very large, much beyond all expectation." And he adds a second instance to a similar effect, showing that at Tonk, in Rajputána, the merchants accepted the import of grain by the State as a guarantee that the step was unlikely to be attended with loss, and exerted themselves so heartily in following suit, that their rulers withdrew altogether, leaving them sole possessors of the field.

Rather than quote further from the volume under notice, we commend it to careful perusal. If it be not written in a very hopeful or sanguine strain, or if it do not supply tangible or palpable remedies for recurrence of the disaster which is its groundwork, it is at least readable, practical and suggestive. To those who have Indian experience of their own to guide them, it will prove more valuable than to simply English readers; for they will be able to supply many *lacunae* in the data given, as well as to test the value of conclusions which, though the legitimate product of personal observation, are often insensibly coloured by personal idiosyncracies acted upon by circumstance.

In conclusion, we would express acquiescence in much of the purport of Mr. Blair's views on the criticisms of the home press. At the same time we believe that the exercise of the power to which he refers acts, upon the whole, beneficially in the prevention as in the detection of administrative errors; and we had rather, therefore, find its range widened than restricted. To us, the failure of the press in these cases, is in being led, or often misled, by the opinions of authorities with whom their correspondents come in contact, not always the most reliable, sound or independent. By this means much is censured that really deserves applause; much is praised that is open to censure; and much good honest work is wholly lost sight of, that should be made public. The reasoning here applies to

many more matters than Indian famines, and, in these days of rapid communication, obtains illustration from Asia and the East in almost weekly instalments.

F. J. GOLDSMID.

Bluebeard's Keys, and other Stories. By Miss Thackeray. (London: Smith, Elder & Co., 1874.)

THERE is a subtle charm in Miss Thackeray's writing which is not easily defined in words. It is like the scent of an old-fashioned garden on a dewy evening, and we are as grateful for the memories and associations it brings back to us, as for its own sweetness and worth.

Her stories are a series of exquisite little sketches full of tender light and shadow and soft harmonious colouring; she

"adds the gleam,

The light that never was on land or sea,"

to commonplace things, so that when we have finished reading one of her books, we instinctively begin to put the circumstances of our own lives into the most picturesque attitude possible. She gives us also a pleasant sense of being at peace with ourselves; she is so genial, so sympathetic, so many-sided, that we seem to have a friend near us who is putting into smooth and pleasant words undefined thoughts of our own, who brings from remote corners of our brain long forgotten gleams of sunshine, sweet dim faces, sights and sounds of long ago, until we are surprised at the amount of our own resources.

And it is not only the picturesque side of the commonplace which Miss Thackeray puts before us, for she has inherited much of the power, which her father had above all other writers, of feeling in their due proportions the humour and the pathos of every-day life.

Wordsworth has said of the poet, that "he is one endowed with more sensibility, more enthusiasm and tenderness, who has a greater knowledge of human nature, and a more comprehensive soul than are supposed to be common among mankind . . . one who rejoices more than others in the spirit of life that is in him." This "spirit of life" is pre-eminent in all Miss Thackeray's writings: in *Elizabeth* breaking through the formalities of the French pastor's home, and asserting her own true self through all her pathetic little love story: in the breezy *Village on the Cliff*, with its naïve little Katharine, its ugly fascinating Frenchmen, its large-hearted Reine: in the pretty stories which have modernised so gracefully our old fairy tales, the last volume of which, *Bluebeard's Keys and Other Stories* (Smith, Elder & Co.) lies before us. And none of the sketches are more charming than these last four. The Roman life in the first story of "Bluebeard's Keys," the Swiss pictures in "Riquet à la Houpe," the quiet English scenery of "Jack and the Beanstalk," and the pretty bit of Normandy in the "White Cat," are as faithfully described as the fairy tales are successfully represented. Bluebeard is an Italian marquis, who nearly scares away the wits of his little Irish betrothed, and finally becomes a monk. Riquet à la Houpe is a certain Tom Rickets, who

wins his love by sheer strength of purpose, and in spite of every personal disadvantage; Jack is a clever and high-minded young farmer, who overcomes a giant squire, and carries off his harp in the shape of his daughter; and "The White Cat" is a pretty young girl in the white dress of a novice, who is saved by her lover from the convent life which she dreads.

It is unfortunate that Miss Thackeray's gift of language has led her into a certain indistinctness of utterance that may become, if not corrected, a serious blemish on her writing. *Old Kensington* suffered from it, and there are some notable examples of it in the book before us. Miss Thackeray feels herself so entirely *en rapport* with her readers, that she believes, and probably believes rightly, that they will gather her meaning from such a passage as the following, which occurs in "Jack and the Beanstalk":—"Foxslip Wood in summer-time is a delightful place, green to the soul. Beyond the coppice here and there, where the branches break asunder, *sweet tumults of delicate shadowy hills are flowing to gleams of light cloud.*" "With some people everything means everything," Miss Thackeray tells us, and, therefore, we need not ask the meaning of "Miss Gorges' curious pale blue sympathetic glances;" but, with every wish to understand it, we find ourselves baffled by this next quotation:—

"Some years are profitless when we look back to them; others seem to be treasuries to which we turn again and again when our store is spent—treasuries of sunny mornings, green things, birds piping, friends greeting, voices of children at play. How happy and busy they are, as they heap up their stores. Golden chaff, crimson tints, chestnuts, silver lights, it is all put away for future use; and years hence *they will*" (who will?) "look back to it, and the lights of their past" (whose past?) "will reach them as starlight reaches us—clear, sweet, vivid, and entire, travelling through time and space."

This indistinctness is only to be found in Miss Thackeray's later writings; there is no trace of it in *The Story of Elizabeth*; and it seems a pity, when her thoughts are so well worth having, that they should be kept from us by any obscurity or hurried and careless expression.

But these blemishes are few in number when compared with all the passages that are as beautiful as the following from "Bluebeard's Keys":—

"It was a great dazzling Italian day. Italian days seem longer and more vivid than any others. Every minute is marked; something is happening and passing away, reflections lighting the red cypress trees, flowers blooming, pigeons flying across the blue, or rubbing their breasts upon the yellow marble of a window lintel, waters foam, and figures fill their earthen pitchers. You look up at the great palaces with their treasures enshrined; outside are stone galleries with blue, high vaults, and statues and pictures glittering and alive. A grand conception of a saint in flying drapery comes down the steps of the Pincio. Little Beppo and his sister, the little models, come dancing to the carriage-steps with soft monkey-hands. Some one flings them a silver coin, and the boy and girl dance back, laughing, and pointing their ribboned feet. Beppo flings his little high-crowned hat into the air; Stella tumbles over with a winsome little caper, as she gives her coin to her beautiful Albanian mother, who sits watching the children with her chin upon

her hands, and a great basket of violets shining at her feet."

And the Swiss vignette is as beautiful in its own way:—

"Here, out of my window, is a sketch ready made—a grey, sloping roof, with wooden beams, and moss-grown stones upon the tiles. There is a wooden balcony, where a woman sits at work all day. There is a garden down below, full of lupins and sunflowers and scarlet runners against a trellis; the hotel cook is walking there between his courses all dressed in white. My sketch is too big for the paper, as many sketches are. It scarcely takes in the plums, or the apple-tree all studded with crimson fruit. There is a chime in the air, torrents foam, birds fly from height to height, the goats tinkle home at night, each cow rings its bell as it browses the turf and the wild thyme, the people are at work upon the hills reaping their saffron crops. If I look out I see a mountain with a grey dome of clouds and shadows," &c.

This sort of writing is nearly as good as change of air. We must give one more short extract, which is worthy of Miss Thackeray's father:—

"There are some people who, all their lives long, have to be content with half-brewed ale, the dregs of the cup, envelopes, cheese-parings, fingers of friendship. To take the lowest place at the feast of life is not always so easily done as people imagine. There are times and hours when everybody is equal, when even the humblest nature conceives the best, and longs for it, and cannot feel quite content with a part. You may be courageous enough to accept disappointment, or generous enough not to grudge any other more fortunate; but to be content demands something more tangible besides courage or generosity."

F. M. OWEN.

NOTES AND NEWS.

WE are informed that Mr. F. York Powell, of Christ Church, Oxford, has completed the translation of the *Færeyinga Saga* upon which he has been for some time engaged, and that the work will probably appear this autumn.

THE suggestion made by Professor Huxley in these columns that an English translation of Haeckel's *Anthropogenie* should be published, has been anticipated by Messrs. King & Co., who have already put the work in hand. The translation of the same author's *Schöpfungsgeschichte*, or *History of Creation*, reviewed by Professor Huxley in the first two numbers of the ACADEMY (October and November 1869), is in the press.

MR. KEGAN PAUL's book on "William Godwin, his Friends and Contemporaries," will go to press immediately, we hear, and will appear in the spring. It will contain portions of an autobiography of Godwin, and large selections from his correspondence, as well as from letters hitherto unpublished of Mary Wollstonecraft, Coleridge, Charles Lamb, Horne Tooke, the Wedgwoods, Curran, Wolcott (Peter Pindar), Mackintosh, J. Kemble, Mrs. Siddons, Mrs. Inchbald and others.

MR. WM. MACMATH, of Edinburgh, has been fortunate enough to find the Glenriddell Ballad MS. which Professor Child has been so long in search of.

MR. FLAVELL EDMUNDS, for many years editor of the *Hereford Times*, died on Christmas Day. He was author of an ingenious philological work, entitled *Traces of History in the Names of Places* (Longmans, 1869), and by his knowledge of botany and archaeology did good service to the Woolhope Field Club, of which he was a zealous member.

MR. THOMAS STEPHENS, well-known in connexion with the history of the language and literature of Wales, died on the 4th inst., at Merthyr Tydvil. His *Literature of the Kymry*, which appeared in 1849, and which created a revolution in the literary history of the Principality, was some years ago translated into German. This was his principal work, and almost the only one which he published in a separate form; but many essays by him, most of which are very valuable, are published in the *Archæologia Cambrensis* and other periodical publications. Among these essays, his papers on the Triads, contributed to a Welsh quarterly journal, and his dissertation on the supposed discovery of America by Prince Madog ab Owen Gwynedd about the year 1170, printed in a Welsh monthly magazine, might be mentioned as possessing peculiar value to the historical student.

In the last number of the *Revista de España*, the Vizconde de San Javier narrates a terrible episode in Spanish history, strongly reminding us in some particulars of "the man in the iron mask." When Maria Luisa died at Rome in 1819, she left, among other legacies, one to her last confessor Fray Juan de Almaráz, who, finding himself unable to obtain its payment from her son Fernando VII., at last took the imprudent step of writing to him to the effect that the queen had authorised him to reveal after her death that none of her sons were the sons of Carlos IV. Greatly disquieted, the king determined to silence him, and the unlucky priest was kidnapped, placed on board ship, and conveyed to Peñíscola, where he was secluded from all human intercourse, his very name being unknown to his gaolers. When he had been in prison three years, the king sent the Archbishop of Mexico to him with a promise that if he confessed his offence and signed a formal retraction, he should be pardoned. Fray Almaráz signed this document, but remained in his old prison. The archbishop ventured upon a remonstrance, but was told that the king wished to forget the matter entirely, that he had fulfilled his mission, and that he must think no more about it, if he did not wish to receive a terrible proof of his Majesty's displeasure. After the death of Fernando, the unfortunate confessor was released. One month after leaving Peñíscola he died mad. This has the air of a novelette, but the Vizconde assures us that the documents relating to the affair, or at least a great part of them, are preserved in the archives of the Ministerio de Gracia y Justicia.

THE Camden Society have authorised Mr. W. D. Hamilton to print, as an appendix to Lord Henry Percy's *Chronicle of Henry VIII.*, the original documents relating to the trial of Anne Boleyn from the *Baga de Secretis*. They have hitherto been known merely from the abstract given in one of the Deputy Keeper's reports, in which some points of importance did not receive sufficient notice.

THE New Shakspeare Society last week sent out its final issue of books for 1874 to its subscribers. 1. *Romeo and Juliet*, parallel-texts of the first two quartos Q1, 1597; Q2, 1599, edited, with an Introduction, by Mr. P. A. Daniel, and "presented to the members of the New Shakspeare Society by H.R.H. Prince Leopold, one of the Vice-Presidents of the Society;" 2. *Romeo and Juliet*, reprint of Q1, 1597; 3. *Romeo and Juliet*, Q2, 1599, both edited by Mr. P. A. Daniel; 4. *The Still Lion*, an Essay towards the Restoration of Shakspeare's Text, by C. M. Ingleby, M.A., LL.D., Trin. Coll. Camb., "a copy is presented to each member of the New Shakspeare Society," by the author; 5. *The Succession of Shakspeare's Works*, and the Use of Metrical Tests in settling it, being the Introduction to Gervinus's *Commentaries on Shakspeare* (Smith, Elder and Co., 1874), by Fredk. J. Furnivall, M.A. (hints for beginners, presented by the writer).

WE hear that Messrs. Macmillan have in an advanced state of preparation a series of Literature and History Primers, modelled after their Science

Primers, and edited by Mr. J. R. Green, M.A., author of the recently published *History of the English People*. The first of these, *English Grammar*, Dr. Morris, will appear very shortly, and will be followed in quick succession by *English Literature*, Rev. Stopford Brooke; *Latin Literature*, Rev. Dr. Farrar; *Philology*, J. Peile, M.A.; *Europe*, E. A. Freeman, D.C.L.; *England*, J. R. Green, M.A.; *Rome*, Rev. M. Creighton, M.A.; *Greece*, C. A. Fyffe, M.A.; and *France*, Miss C. M. Yonge.

PROFESSOR KIELHORN, the Principal of the Decan College, Poona, has just published a Catalogue of Sanskrit MSS. existing in the Central Provinces, prepared by order of E. Wilmot, Inspector-General of Education, (Nagpur, 1874). The catalogue is classified, and the books arranged alphabetically in each class. Useful as these catalogues are, it seems high time to make a change. The mere repetition of a well-known title is useless. What is really wanted is scholar-like descriptions of rare and really important works.

THE new number of the *Deutsche Rundschau* contains some valuable articles, though it is not so perfect as the last. The story, "Ricordo," by Putlitz, is written simply in order to write a story. Not one of the characters is properly modelled, not one excites any deeper interest. The only excuse for so inarticulate a story is to suppose that it was not invented, but true. Dr. Böhr's account of the "Tidschi Islands," and his interview with the ex-King Thakombau, will interest readers in England who take a pride in this last jewel added to the British crown. Lasker's second article on "Education" is full of good intentions, and written in a fluent, sometimes too fluent, a style. We should have liked more facts and statistics, and far more warmth and determination in discussing a question on which the whole future of Germany depends. For the coming war of education Germany will want a Bismarck and a Moltke rolled into one. We are surprised at the extracts from Brandt's Diary. General von Brandt was attached to Prince Napoleon, when he visited the late King of Prussia in 1857. Whatever the feelings of the Court may have been, Prince Napoleon was the guest of the King, and such things as are here related should not be published during the lifetime of the person whom they concern, if ever. The duties of hospitality are sacred, even during war, and crowned heads will have to be careful when staying at the Castle at Berlin if the officers in waiting are of the stamp of General von Brandt. Geibel's poem is strong in descriptive power, but surely such a *Seeräuber-geschichte* might be left to smaller poets.

A NEW edition of the Yajurveda is advertised at Calcutta. It will contain the text, the commentary, and a translation. Dr. Weber, of Berlin, who published the text and commentary of the Yajurveda in 1849, is likewise preparing a translation of that work, which, though belonging to a much later period than the Rig-Veda, is of great interest as illustrating the sacrificial system of the Brahmans.

M. GEORGES PERROT, who has been elected a member of the Académie des Inscriptions et Belles-Lettres in the place of Guizot, is best known by his archaeological exploration of Galatia and Bithynia, undertaken at the expense of the French Government. It was he who discovered the *Index Rerum Gestarum D. Augusti*. He is also the translator of Max Müller's *Lectures on the Science of Language*, and of two volumes of his *Chips from a German Workshop*, published under the title of *Essais sur la Mythologie Comparée, and Essais sur l'Histoire des Religions*.

In the *Revue des Deux Mondes* for December 15, there is an interesting article on the loves of M^{me}. de Sabran and the notorious Chevalier de Boufflers. In the number for January 1, M. Othenin d'Haussonville has a first article on

Sainte-Beuve, carrying the narrative of his life and works down to 1830. The occasion of the article is the publication of Sainte-Beuve's correspondence with a schoolfellow who became a priest, which proves that he retained his belief in Catholicism with a good deal of schoolboy pedantry up to eighteen or nineteen. His subsequent changes up to the age of six-and-twenty, when a more or less platonic love led him back to a more or less platonic orthodoxy, are traced with apparent candour, and with the air of authority which comes from access to special information. M. George Bousquet gives an interesting account of a visit to Yezo, the northernmost island which belongs beyond dispute to Japan, which is larger than Ireland, and has a total population of 76,850, including 16,000 Ainos, a singular aboriginal race, with many analogies to the North American Indians. The interior of the island is almost entirely covered with forests, it is known to contain valuable mines, and M. Bousquet thinks it would be better to leave these resources to be developed by private adventurers in search of fortune, instead of trying to colonise the island by the authority of the Government, an enterprise which is at present pursued with American assistance and grotesque results. The *Revue* announces that it will shortly publish "Flamérande," by George Sand, and "Un Mariage dans le Monde," by M. Octave Feuillet, and that the "Table de la *Revue des Deux Mondes* de 1851 à 1874" will be ready immediately.

A GERMAN lady, Countess Prokesch (Frederike Gossman) has attempted—with more ingenuity, perhaps, than real profit to literature—to collect in one volume all the poems which could be gathered together from the works of German poets in honour of the Rose. Royalty figures largely in this rose-garden of poetry; and while Prince Adalbert of Bavaria heads the series of rose-songs with a special adulatory address to the queen of flowers, the Grand Duchess Vera of Russia, wife of Prince Eugène of Wurtemberg, closes the list with a composition of decidedly gloomy colouring. The German supply of rose-poetry is completed in the Countess's compendium by well-turned translations from the writings of Anacreon, Béranger, and Tom Moore, and from other equally incongruous sources.

THE Strassburg University Library has been recently enriched by the reigning prince of Bentheim-Steinfurt, through the presentation of a valuable collection of books which had belonged to the now secularised monastery of Frenswegen, near Nordhorn, in Osnabrück. The collection, which consists of upwards of 1,000 volumes, includes fifty MSS. in Latin and Low German, written on vellum and paper, which are remarkable as choice specimens of calligraphy. Some of the Low German MSS. are in the Westphalian dialect of the locality, which gives them special value from a linguistic point of view, while the presence in the collection of 150 incunabula makes this a doubly important addition to the contents of the Strassburg Library, which at the time of the disastrous siege lost all the numerous incunabular impressions for which it had been so distinguished.

THE death is announced of the distinguished economist, M. A. Audiganne, author of *Populations ouvrières de la France, Ouvriers en famille, &c.*

THE *Bibliographie de la France* gives some details of the history of the *Gazette de France*, which has just been put up to auction. It was founded in 1631 by Théophraste Renaudot, physician to the King, who may be regarded also as the founder of the modern pawnshop and advertising office. It first appeared once a week with four quarto pages, next with eight pages, which form it retained till nearly the end of the eighteenth century, when it became a daily paper. It was at first devoted chiefly to advertisements, general news occupying a very subordinate place; and it was long prosperous in spite of the competition

of the *Mercur*, which was started soon after the *Gazette*. The National Library possesses a complete set, consisting of 189 quarto and 128 folio volumes, which occupy a space on the shelves of sixteen metres in length.

THE *Liberté* gives some interesting statistics with regard to French literature during the year 1874. The total number of books, including original works and new editions, printed throughout the whole of France was 11,917, beside periodicals of all kinds. There were also 2,196 engravings, prints, and maps, and 3,841 numbers of vocal and instrumental music, raising the total number of publications to 17,954. These results are the more satisfactory, as in the highly prosperous year 1869, only 17,394 publications were registered; in 1870, 8,831; in 1872, 10,650; in 1873, 11,530. The average for the last twenty years has been about 15,000, of which 10,000 are printed works, 3,000 engravings, maps, plans, photographs, &c., and the remaining 2,000 musical publications.

WE have received *Shakespeare's Dramatic Works*, with notes by S. W. Singer, and a Life by W. Watkiss Lloyd, vols. i. and ii. (Bell & Sons); *Renshaw's The Cone and its Sections treated Geometrically* (Hamilton, Adams & Co.); *Bädeker's Central Italy and Rome*, fourth edition (Leipzig: Bädeker); *Prussia in Relation to the Foreign Policy of England* (Hatchards); *Von Sybel's Clerical Policy in the Nineteenth Century*, translated by J. Scot Henderson (Hatchards); *Englische Grammatik*, von E. Mätzner, zweiter Thl., erste Hälfte, second edition (Berlin: Weidmann); *Das Verbrechen des Hochverraths*, von W. E. Knitschky (Jena: Mauke); *Der Kindergarten*, bearbeitet von H. Goldammer, 1. u. 2. Thl. (Berlin: Lüderitz); *Das Verbrechen des Mordes und die Todesstrafe*, von F. von Holtzendorff (Berlin: Lüderitz); *Studien zur Geschichte der alten Kirche*, von F. Overbeck, 1. Hft. (Schloss-Chemnitz: Schmeitzner).

THE *Journal des Débats*, in a short historical sketch of the Marshalate of France, states that the first person on whom that dignity was conferred was a certain Pierre-Pierre, created in 1185, and the last marshal nominated under the old monarchy was the Comte de Rochambeau, Washington's companion in arms, in 1791. The total number of marshals created between 1185 and 1791 was 256. Under the first empire (1804–1813) twenty-five marshals of France were created, Berthier, Prince de Wagram, being the first, and Prince Poniatowski the last; under the Restoration nine marshals, beginning with the Duc de Coigny, and ending with the Comte de Bourmont; under the Monarchy of July there were nine creations, the first being the Comte Gérard, and the last the Vicomte Dode de la Brunerie; from 1850 to 1870 nineteen creations, the first marshal nominated being Prince Jérôme Bonaparte, and the last General le Boeuf. The total number of creations since the institution of the marshalate in 1185 to the present day is 318.

FROM a newspaper published in the year 1761 we get the following astounding piece of information dated from the Hague, April 17:—

"Two men are arrived at Cologne, who say they came from Damascus. The Jesuits of that town have been with them, and talked to them in Latin, Greek, Hebrew, and Chaldaic. They answered them in all languages. They say they are come by the order of Heaven, to turn men to repentance. They give out they are 700 years old, and that the world will infallibly be at an end in 1773. The Jesuits have obtained leave to carry them to Rome. Being put in irons, they were glad of that opportunity of proving the truth of their mission by breaking them. They say:—

"The war will be general in . . . 1765
Constantinople destroyed . . . 1766
The true God acknowledged by all nations . . . 1767

A valiant man give his testimony to it . . . 1768
England overflowed . . . 1769
An earthquake all over the world . . . 1770
The fall of the sun, moon, and stars . . . 1771
The globe of the earth burnt . . . 1772
The universal judgment . . . 1773

"The French envoy at Cologne has received orders to examine them strictly."

THE little biographical sketch which follows, singularly illustrative of clerical manners and morals a century back, is derived from some manuscript jottings of a contemporary fellow-worker in the Church of England, the Reverend William Cole, of Milton, Cambridgeshire:—

Lamb Robert, Bishop of Peterborough, Fellow of Trinity College. He died in the first week of November, 1769, at his rectory of Hatfield, being taken ill on horseback, in the field in hunting, and carried home, where he died immediately. He was brother to Sir Matthew Lamb, steward and agent for the Earl of Salisbury, and member for Peterborough, who died very rich a little before him. The bishop died a bachelor, and was a *bon vivant*, and was supposed to have rather injured his health by a too free use of the bottle, but was otherwise a very worthy man, and much esteemed. He was buried at Hatfield. He was disposed to have rebuilt the palace at Peterborough, where he laid out much on the preparations and ornaments, as he had before done at the Deanery, but was diverted from it by Sir Matthew his brother. It was said that both the Bishop and Sir Matthew were remarkably ignorant in their professions, the one as a lawyer, and the other as a divine; the latter having twice been refused orders for insufficiency, as the former was particularly noted by Lord Chancellor Hardwick as unworthy of the usual honours and promotions in his profession. Perhaps both may be exaggerated.

FROM a memorandum attached to a manuscript volume in the British Museum of "Collections relative to the Family of Murray, of Stanhope, in the County of Peebles," are to be gathered some curious bits of gossip. The papers, which are of not much general interest in themselves, chiefly relate to Sir Alexander Murray, Baronet, and his brother Charles. Sir Alexander was the husband of the celebrated Lady Murray, "whose delightful Memoirs some few years since were presented to the world by Thomas Thompson, Esq., in a private publication—but which attracted so much notice that a new edition for sale was published in a smaller size." Her ladyship, we are reminded, in her own time created a considerable sensation in the fashionable world, and the attempt to ravish her by Arthur Grey, her footman, contributed not a little to her notoriety. Lady Mary Wortley Montague made the rape the subject of a ballad remarkable for its indelicacy, *not* (adds our informant) included by Lord Wharncliffe in his edition of her ladyship's works. One paper in the collection is a copy of a petition addressed by him, September 24, 1715, from the Marshalsea to the Duchess of Marlborough, to procure his liberation from thence. He was confined in that "expensive and unwholesome prison, so prejudicial to his health and narrow fortune" (to quote his own words), on account of his connexion with the Rebellion.

NOTES OF TRAVEL.

DR. ANDREAS, who left England this week, is employed by the German Government, as we have before mentioned, on a scientific exploring expedition to Persia. He first proceeds to Shiraz, where he will be joined by a photographer. Dr. Andreas will then explore the province of Khuzistan, the ancient Susiana, and valuable results may be anticipated from his labours. For he is a ripe scholar, and is deeply impressed with the necessity for combining sound geography and a knowledge of early writers on

topography with archaeological investigations. He has made himself familiar with all that has been written by Tabari, Istakhri, and Ibn Haukal on the localities which he is about to visit. Many mistakes may be traced to a want of knowledge of the early writers, especially in the identification of sites; and we may confidently anticipate rich fruits from the exact knowledge and scholarly training which Dr. Andreas will bring to bear upon this field of research. The region which will first receive his attention is most interesting, for it includes the sites of Susa, of many Sasanian ruins and inscriptions, and the scene of the first victorious campaign of Ardshir Babegan. It is probable that, after completing his investigations in Khuzistan, Dr. Andreas will extend his travels to the unvisited city of Lar in Fars.

A NEW company has been formed in Dundee for whaling and sealing, which shows that there is no lack of enterprise on the banks of the Tay, and that voyages to the Arctic regions continue to be lucrative. It is called "The Dundee Polar Fishing Company," and the new company has just bought two fine steamers at Hamburg, the *Jan Mayen* and *Nova Zembla*. This increasing activity in the whaling trade is certain to lead to geographical discoveries, as year by year the chase is extended farther down the Gulf of Boothia, and in other directions.

THE letter from Colonel Long that was read at the meeting of the Geographical Society on Monday conveys some rather startling geographical information. This officer was sent by Colonel Gordon on a mission to 'Mtesa, the King of Uganda, who received him in a most friendly spirit, and even sacrificed several human beings in his honour. Colonel Long was taken for an excursion on the Victoria Nyanza, which he found to be, at the outside, only twenty miles across. His geography is, however, somewhat hazy, and will require confirmation.

A MEMORANDUM has just been published in Calcutta by Mr. Wynne, of the Geological Survey, and Dr. H. Warth, of the Inland Customs Department, on the extensive trans-Indus salt region in the Kohat district. The area occupied is within 1,000 square miles of country, extending from the British frontier eastward to the Indus, and lying between Kohat and Bannu. The stratification is well marked, the purity remarkable, the visible thickness of the mass over 1,000 feet, and the supply, practically speaking, inexhaustible. At the five quarries there are two methods of extracting the salt in vogue, gunpowder being used at some places and the salt being given to merchants in irregular pieces, while at others the salt is detached in slabs by means of pickaxe and wedge. These slabs are of uniform weight, care being exercised to prevent the slabs being too large. The workmen are about 400 in number and their earnings amount to about 15,000 rs. per annum. Storing the salt is at present impracticable, but it would undoubtedly pay to do so during the hot season for the winter trade. Happily for Indian finance, the measures taken to prevent the cheap trans-Indus salt from crossing into the parts of the Punjab which consume the highly-taxed salt of the Salt Range are greatly assisted by the constant difference in colour, the former being usually of some tint of grey, and the latter red or colourless. The trade of this salt is thus all to the west, and it is said to go to Kabul, Ghazni, and even Kandahar and Balkh, the price being, of course, enormously enhanced in transit. Dr. Warth concludes his report with an opinion that Government is selling its cheap salt at a dead loss, and should recoup itself from the frontier states by imposing a duty.

THE Admiralty have printed a second part of Captain Nares's *Reports on Ocean Soundings and Temperature in the Antarctic Sea, Australia, and New Zealand, 1874*, with three plates showing the isothermal lines at different depths. It appears that the icebergs met with by the *Challenger*

were usually from a quarter to half a mile in diameter, and about 200 feet high; the largest was seen furthest south in latitude 66° 40'; it was at least three miles in length, and was accompanied by several others nearly as large.

DURING the last two seasons a Russian expedition has been exploring in the extreme north of Siberia, about the vicinity of the lower Tunguska and Olenek rivers. This region was a virgin field for research. It lies some distance to the west of the country visited by Middendorf, and the natural features have been hitherto shown on maps in the vaguest fashion. Messrs. Chekanofsky and Muller, two Russians of scientific attainments, have now travelled northward along the water-parting of the Tunguska and Olenek, and have made several important geographical discoveries, beside fixing several points. Their report was dated July 2, and they had not then reached the shores of the Arctic Ocean, but there is every prospect of their having had time to do so since, and so making a highly interesting journey, for our sole knowledge of this portion of the coast-line of Siberia is derived from the uncertain accounts of the surveyors despatched by the Empress Catherine to map out that limit of her dominions.

THE most noticeable contribution to the *Geographical Magazine* for January is an exhaustive review of Livingstone's last journals. The reviewer gives a summary of the great traveller's later journeys, which he divides into four parts, the first including the route from the Rovuma river to Lake Nyassa, the second referring to the basin of the Chambeze and Lualaba, the third relating to Lake Tanganyika, and the fourth to the Manyema country. A sketch of the work of the Portuguese explorers Lacerda, Pereira, Gamitto, and Monteiro, in so far as it joins that of Livingstone's, is given, and this leads to the remark that in this and other respects the work has unfortunately received careless editing, a statement which it is impossible to help agreeing with, albeit the book has received favourable notice in various quarters. An excellent map of Equatorial Africa serves to illustrate both the review and a paper on Lieutenant Cameron's survey of Lake Tanganyika. Among the notes deserving mention are a rather full account of the approaching British Indian mission to Yunnan, a notice of a recent Russian caravan journey to Mäsh-had, and an announcement of the selection of an Austrian naturalist, Herr Marno, to accompany Colonel Gordon's expedition up the Nile.

NOTES OF A TOUR IN THE CYCLADES AND CRETE.

I. Delos and Rheneia.

IN the forenoon of March 18, 1874, I was rounding Cape Matapan in the French packet, having left Marseilles three days and a half before, the two first of which had been passed in clear and calm weather before we reached the Straits of Messina, after which time we had been tossing "in Adria," as the sea between Sicily and Greece was regularly called by the Greek geographers, which from the meeting of the Adriatic and Mediterranean currents is usually a disturbed piece of water. The lofty range of Taygetus, which runs northward from Taenarum, and attains its greatest elevation on the western side of the valley of Sparta, formed a conspicuous object from the masses of snow, with which its peaks and sides were deeply covered. As we passed between Cythera and the curious promontory of Onugnathos, or the Ass's Jaw, on the mainland opposite, the famous island looked grey and repulsive, and anything but a fitting home for the Goddess of Love. Here we were in comparatively calm water, but from former experience we knew what to expect on the other side of Malea, that headland so justly dreaded by the ancient sailors, as the epitaphs in the Greek Anthology can testify. Nor were we disappointed; for as soon as we had

passed the chapel of the hermit of Malea, which lies at the foot of the promontory, we were met by a furious north-east wind—the rude Kaikias of classical writers, and the Euroclydon of St. Paul's voyage—which considerably delayed our progress. Away to the south a small island (now called Cerigotto) came in sight, which forms the connecting link between Crete and Cythera; and later in the day we passed Melos, Anti-Melos, and other islands, which wore a grey, harsh, and uninviting appearance. It was midnight before we reached Syra, the great mercantile station in the middle of the Cyclades, and the best starting-point for a tour in the Greek Islands. Here I disembarked, and joined my travelling companion, Mr. Crowder, who had arrived from Athens a day or two before, bringing with him, as our dragoon, Alexandros Anemoiannes, who on various occasions had accompanied well-known travellers in Greece, as G. F. Bowen, W. G. Clark, John Stuart Mill, Dean Stanley, Sir T. Wyse, &c. The weather report from Athens told of bitter cold. The steamer which conveyed them from the Piræus to Syra had been obliged frequently to stop, owing to the danger to navigation from the thickness of the falling snow, and snow was lying in the streets at Syra. We received similar accounts from other quarters. An Armenian gentleman, who was one of my fellow passengers on the steamer, had heard before leaving England that there was deep snow at Constantinople, and that owing to the same cause the communications between that city and the interior of Asia Minor had been broken for some time. Subsequently we learnt that the weather was equally severe at Jerusalem. The prospects of our journey looked most unfavourable, for the islands cannot properly be visited except in a boat of moderate size, which admits of being rowed in a calm; and such a mode of locomotion would have been impracticable in such an inclement season.

The next morning, however, as if by magic, all this was changed. The wind was from the south, soft and warm, the sky cloudless, and the sea only moved by a gentle ripple. It was a perfect Aegean spring day, the only sign of the previous bad weather being the snow which covered the tops of the loftier islands. Accordingly, we hired a boat with three men, intending to make a trial trip to Delos, Rheneia, and Tenos, and started from the mole of Syra shortly after midday. As we left the harbour, we obtained a fine view of the town, which lies on the eastern side of the island, about half-way between its northern and southern extremities. It is now called Hermupolis, and contains 30,000 inhabitants, the most conspicuous portion being the Roman Catholic quarter, which rises steeply up the sides of a conical hill; this was the old town of Syra, whereas the new town, which spreads from the foot of this to the sea, and is the busiest of Oriental stations, has sprung up along with the commercial activity of the place. No trees were to be seen, except a few cypresses, the greater part of the ground being uncultivated, though vineyards appeared here and there, and a great quantity of tomatoes are grown. Still the stony mountain-sides have a certain beauty, owing to the extreme clearness of the air, and the contrast afforded by the wonderful blue of the sky. Passing the island of Gaidaro, or "The Donkey," one of two rocky islets which lie off the harbour, and in ancient times were called Didymæ, or "The Twins," we gradually saw the Cyclades open out before us. Rheneia lay due east of us, concealing Delos entirely, while Myconos rose above and beyond its northern end; these, together with Tenos, are visible from Syra itself. Then, as we proceeded, there appeared on the left hand, first Andros, which seems a continuation of Tenos, the narrow strait that separates them being indistinguishable; then the promontory of Geraestus in Euboea; and at last Gyara, the Botany Bay of the Romans, nearer at hand, and half hidden by a corner of Syra; on the right, lying along the

southern horizon, Naxos, Paros, Antiparos, Siphnos and Seriphos. It was an admirable island view to commence with, and it was easy to distinguish the highest points by the amount of snow which they bore: far the greatest quantity lay on the south of Euboea, next after which came Andros, and then Naxos, while on the rest none was visible. The forms were broken and yet graceful, and the afternoon sun brought out the beautiful shadows on the mountain sides which are so familiar to the traveller in Greece. The general effect of the islands, especially the more distant ones, is that of long lines on the surface of the sea. The length of Naxos is very conspicuous, notwithstanding its lofty mountains, while Paros forms a single low pyramid, bearing a striking resemblance to the other great source of white marble, Pentelicus. Tenos is distinguished by the numerous white villages which stud its sides, while behind the town of Tenos itself, on the summit of the ridge, there rises a remarkable knob of rock, faced with red: with this we were destined to make further acquaintance. The picturesqueness of the whole scene was enhanced by numerous white sails dotting the blue sea, and by an atmospheric illusion, which lifted the islands out of the water.

We had steered a little south of east, and in about four hours found ourselves rounding the southernmost point of Rheneia; from hence the long soft line of Ios was visible between Naxos and Paros on the horizon. The cape is formed of fine masses of granite, curiously honeycombed, and we subsequently discovered that both this island and the sister isle of Delos are entirely composed of this kind of stone, which is not the case with most of the other Aegean islands; consequently, while the houses of the town of Delos were of granite, as we see from their remains, the materials for most of the public buildings were imported. The two islands are now called the Greater and the Lesser Deli, and run due north and south, divided by a strait about half a mile in breadth, which forms a beautiful harbour, with deep water, and sheltered from every wind. There can be little doubt that it was to this feature that Delos originally owed its greatness, for it was the first place where persons could anchor in coming from the east, and thus became a natural resort for traders. Rowing up this channel, at the narrowest point we came to an island in mid-stream, now called Rheumatari or Stream-island, which in ancient times was named the Island of Hecate. It is highly probable that it was here that Poly-crates threw across the chain, by which he attached Rheneia to Delos, in token of its being dedicated to Apollo; and that Nicias when sent from Athens as the leader of a festival procession, having brought a bridge from Athens to Rheneia, and laid it in the night-time, proceeded to the temple on the morrow with triumphal pomp. Directly to the east of this rises Mount Cynthus, the highest point in Delos, and in a valley which descends almost from its summit towards the strait in a south-westerly direction is the bed of a stream, the ancient Inopus, which had a legendary connexion with the Nile, for Callimachus says that it was fullest when that river is flooded. Possibly the link of connexion may be found in a temple of Isis on the mountain side. Passing the island of Hecate, we landed on Delos, near where another small island, the lesser Rheumatari, lies off the coast; here there were traces of quays, but the sea has retired and left a sandy beach. Within a gunshot of this point the ruins of the great temple of Apollo were plainly visible, forming a vast heap of fallen blocks of white marble; but we refrained for the moment from visiting these, our object being to ascend Cynthus before night-fall. Making our way through aromatic brush-wood of lentisk and cistus, we directed our steps towards a white wall, conspicuous from below, which proved to belong to a theatre, the *cavea* of which faces west, and is clearly traceable, the back part being excavated in the hill side, while

the ends are composed of masonry of Parian marble, the courses, of which in one place thirteen remain, being skilfully put together, though somewhat narrow. The line of the *scena* also is well marked. Behind this, and further up the hill side, stood the small temple of Isis already referred to, the foundations of which have been excavated, and show that it was of white marble; the *pronaos*, *naos*, and an altar were visible, together with a mosaic pavement composed of pebbles; its dedication is proved by an inscription found there. In the neighbourhood of this temple there is a curious gateway, which, when seen from a distance, resembles a cavern, but in reality is artificial, the roof being formed of two granite blocks resting against one another at an obtuse angle; the chamber to which it led, and which Leake conjectures to have been, perhaps, the treasury of Delos, is now obstructed. We then mounted by a very steep ascent to the summit of Cynthus, where are the foundations and fragments of another temple, the pillars being in the Ionic style. As this mountain is not more than 350 feet above the sea, I had often wondered how classical writers could speak of it as lofty—Aristophanes, for instance (*Nub.* 598), describes it as *Κυνθίαν ὑψηλίστην*—especially as it is surrounded by so much loftier peaks; but from its steepness and rocky character it deserves that epithet, and certainly it is very conspicuous from everywhere in the neighbouring seas. This circumstance, especially if it served as a landmark to vessels coming from the open sea, may also, perhaps, explain the origin of the name of the island, *Ἀῖλος*, which can hardly be otherwise than of Greek origin, and yet was sufficiently strange to cause even the ancients to speak of *Ἀῖλος ἄλλος*. The view from this point is very fine, comprehending all the islands we have already noticed—the *Κυκλάδες*, of which Callimachus says:

Ἀσπρὴν θύεσσα, αἱ μὲν περὶ τ' ἄμφι τε νῆσοι
κύκλον ποιεῖσαντο καὶ ὡς χορὸν ἀμφεβάλοντο

while Myconos is full in view to the north-east, separated by a strait about two miles wide. It was natural, therefore, that Virgil should represent Apollo as fastening his island to Myconos, when it ceased to wander on the sea; but what, except Roman ignorance of geography, should make him attach it also to Gyarus—*celsa Gyaro Myconoque revinait*—I do not understand. Here, too, the character of the island is well seen—a narrow rocky ridge, between two and three miles in length, with granite knolls and barren slopes; thus justifying the story related in the Homeric Hymn to the Delian Apollo, that Latona visited all the richest spots in the Aegean before giving birth to her children; but all were afraid to receive her, so that she betook herself to the small and rugged island. As we descended on the opposite side from that by which we had approached, we met the single inhabitant of Delos, an old shepherd, who spoke a most extraordinary dialect of Greek. He did not offer to accompany us, which our guide, who was not then with us, attributed to his regarding our sudden appearance as uncanny; the next day, however, when I questioned the old man as to the existence of "Vrykolakas" or vampires in the island, he replied in the negative; at which I was surprised, for it was the neighbouring island of Myconos, about which Tournefort relates a marvellous story, of the whole population being *bouleversé* for weeks together by such an apparition. We passed the night in some deserted shepherd's huts, lying in a depression to the north of Cynthus, where the ground slopes gradually to the two seas, and has been sown with corn by the people of Myconos: these dwellings were constructed of stones put together with straw instead of mortar, while the doors were of ancient blocks approaching one another toward the top. All around grew the spreading leaves and lilac flowers of the mandrake (*Atropa mandragora*), forming large flat patches on the ground. This excessively poisonous plant, which has been a favourite with witches in all ages, and is said to

utter shrieks when its root is extracted from the ground, is especially common in the Greek islands. In Attica bits of the root are carried by young men as amatory amulets. As I lay awake part of the night in the extraordinary stillness, I was able to recall, in some measure, the crowds of worshippers, the visit of the Persians, and other romantic glories of the place—things which it is so difficult to realise, when the senses are in contact with the material objects.

The next morning opened with rain, but it had cleared by eight o'clock, and we descended from our night's lodging towards the landing-place where we had left our boat. As we approached the sea, the northernmost ruins that we met with were those of the ancient city, where granite columns were lying among broken fragments of walls. Beyond this was an oval basin, about 100 yards in length, forming a kind of pond, the sides of which were banked in by a casing of stonework; it is usually dry, but at this season contained a small quantity of water. In ancient times it was full, and was called the Circular Lake (*τροχαιοῦς λίμνη*, Herod. ii. 170). If, as we are told by Theognis (7), it was near this lake that Latona brought forth her two children, then the famous palm-tree of Delos, which is mentioned in Homer (*Od.* vi. 162), where Ulysses compares Nausicaa's beauty to it, must have stood here, for we are told in the Hymn to the Delian Apollo (117) that the goddess clasped it when in the pains of childbirth; though Callimachus has followed another version of the story, when he places that occurrence on the banks of the Inopus (*Del.* 206). Near this basin is the only good spring of water in the island, and this circumstance probably determined the position of the temple of Apollo. The *temenos* of this is hard by to the south, and within it the ruins of the temple form a confused heap of white marble fragments, columns, bases, and entablatures lying indiscriminately together. They are of the Doric order, and as many of the shafts are only partly fluted, it would seem that the details of the building were never completely finished. The wreck of so fine a specimen of architecture is a sad sight; but when we consider that the place has served for a quarry for the neighbouring islanders, and a place of pillage for foreigners from the times of the Venetian occupation to our own days, perhaps the wonder is rather that so much remains. In the south-west part of the area is a large square marble basis, hollowed out in the middle, with the remains of an inscription on one side ΝΑΞΙΟΙ ΑΠΟΛΛΑΓΝΙ: this supported a colossus, which was overthrown in ancient times by the falling of a palm-tree of bronze gilt, erected by Nicias in its immediate neighbourhood (Plutarch, *Nic.* 3). When Spon and Wheler visited this island in 1675, the statue remained with the exception of its head, and part of the torso, from the neck to the waist, has been seen within the present half century, but we could find no traces of it. A portion of the ruins in the temple area towards the coast, which are in the Corinthian style, seem to have belonged to an entrance colonnade to the *temenos*; and not far off, on the other side of a wall constructed by the shepherds, are the prostrate columns of another portico, built by Philip V. of Macedon. In Spon's time eleven of these were standing, but without capitals. In the midst of the ruins, anemones of various colours—white, pink, and lilac—were growing, and I dug up some fine narcissus roots to transplant to England. Our guide informed me that J. S. Mill, when he travelled with him in the Peloponnese, besides drying flowers, had an extra baggage mule in his train for carrying plants and roots.

Embarking once more, we crossed the strait, and landed on Rheneia, at a point somewhat south of the island of Hecate. Both Rheneia and its sister island are absolutely bare of trees. At a little distance from this point, on the slopes which rise above the strait, is an ancient necropolis, containing the graves of those whose bodies were removed from Delos at the time of the Peloponne-

sian war. It extends over half a mile, and is a scene of wild desolation, worthy of the circle of the *Inferno* in which Farinata's spirit emerged from its fiery tomb. Broken stones lay strewn about in all directions, mixed here and there with sides and lids of sarcophagi. Usually the graves are only distinguishable by depressions in the ground, but in some places the areas and walls are traceable. About them were growing the coarse branching stems of the asphodel, a most disenchanting plant, and so rough, that if the lotus-eaters enjoyed lying among them, they did not indulge in Sybarite tastes. When we returned to our boat we found the sailors eating raw limpets, which they picked from the rocks. It was now the Greek Lent, which is observed with great strictness by all the sailors in the Aegean, but bloodless fish are allowed to be eaten.

H. F. TOZER.

SELECTED BOOKS.

General Literature and Art.

- DEMMIN, A. Encyclopédie historique, etc., des beaux-arts plastiques. T. 3. L'Art de la Gravure. Paris: Furne, Jonvet et Cie.
- ERHRT, H. Fritz Reuter. Sein Leben und seine Werke. Güstrow: Opitz. 3 Thl.
- GASKELL, G. Algeria as it is. Smith, Elder & Co. 7s. 6d.
- LEHNZ, G. Œuvres de, publiées pour la première fois d'après les manuscrits originaux, avec notes et introductions par A. Foucher de Careil. T. 7. Paris: Firmin Didot.
- MAINE, Sir H. On the Early History of Institutions. Murray. 12s.
- NORDHOFF, C. The Communist Societies of the United States. Murray. 15s.
- PLANCHÉ, J. R. The Cyclopaedia of Costume; or, a Dictionary of Dress. Part I. Chas. & Windus. 5s.
- RAHN, J. R. Geschichte der bildenden Künste in der Schweiz. 2. Abth. Zürich: Stab. 3 Thl. 22 Ngr.

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CORRESPONDENCE.

THE "QUARTERLY REVIEW" AND MR. DARWIN.
Jan. 13, 1875.

It was with no slight astonishment that I read the objection made in your last number to my intimation that Mr. Darwin had, in fact, deliberately kept back, when he published his *Origin of Species*, any explicit declaration of his views as to the bestiality of man, in order the better to disseminate his notions by disguising them (through such studious reticence) from the less clear-sighted.

My astonishment was great for two reasons. First, because a statement to the same effect had appeared as much as three years earlier,* and, as far

* "In his earlier writings a certain reticence veiled, though it did not hide, his ultimate conclu-

sions as to the origin of our own species." . . . "What was obscurely hinted in the *Origin of Species* is here fully and fairly stated in all its bearings and without disguise."—Review of the *Descent of Man* in the *Quarterly Review* for July, 1871, p. 47.

His words in the introduction to his *Descent of Man* (words referring to his conduct and motives in earlier publications), stand as follows:—

"During many years I collected notes on the origin and descent of man, without any intention of publishing on the subject, but rather with the determination not to publish, as I thought that I should thus only add to the prejudices against my views."

If this does not denote deliberate and intentional "reticence," it is to me unintelligible.

Everyone who recollects the earlier stages of the controversy must remember that Mr. Darwin was often excused or defended on the plea that he might not really mean to include man. Moreover he was *rightly* so defended, for however little obscure might be his real meaning to the more clear-sighted and to his personal friends, there is, so far as I know, nothing in the *Origin of Species*, and certainly nothing in the passages quoted from it in your last number, which need have hindered the innocent or more kindly disposed from believing that Mr. Darwin appreciated "reason" at its just value, and therefore, like Mr. Wallace, Professor Max Müller, and the author of the *Genesis of Species*, made rational man an exception to the general process of evolution.

Mr. Darwin proceeds (in the passage quoted) to say: "It seemed to me sufficient to indicate, in the first edition of my *Origin of Species*, that by this work" light would be thrown on the origin of man and his history; "and this implies that man must be included with other organic beings in any general conclusions respecting his manner of appearance on this earth."

And so it was sufficient for some purposes: sufficient to reveal his meaning to those who could divine his psychological views, sufficient also to secure the zealous aid of those eager to prove man to be in nature, as in end, like "the beasts which perish," without at the same time stimulating opposition, as it would have been stimulated had he plainly and unmistakably stated at first his views and conclusions as to man.

As to Mr. George Darwin, I gladly avail myself of this opportunity of repeating, what has already been stated by the *Quarterly Review* for October, that however I may have misunderstood him, nothing could have been further from my intention than the wish to insinuate anything against Mr. G. Darwin personally. It never occurred to me as possible, when the passage was written, that it could be taken as casting any slur of the kind. Had it so occurred to me, it would most assuredly never have appeared. Nor do I hesitate to avow my great regret for not having more carefully guarded against any such possible misapprehension. THE QUARTERLY REVIEWER OF 1874.

CAPTAIN HOFFMEYER'S CHARTS OF THE WEATHER.

Meteorological Office: January 12, 1875.

I have the honour to inform you that the issue of Captain Hoffmeyer's daily charts of the weather from 60° E. to 60° W. longitude, and from 30° to 75° N. latitude, for the three months of last winter, are now complete.

Captain Hoffmeyer is anxious to know what chance there is of his being able to continue the publication. The number of copies already sold of the existing charts has not been sufficient to cover the expenses of production.

sions as to the origin of our own species." . . . "What was obscurely hinted in the *Origin of Species* is here fully and fairly stated in all its bearings and without disguise."—Review of the *Descent of Man* in the *Quarterly Review* for July, 1871, p. 47.

At the same time this office has found that the rate of subscription (11s. per quarter) which it charges has fallen short of the cost, carriage, and postage of the existing chart.

I have, therefore, to request any gentlemen who are willing to subscribe to a future issue of the charts to send in their names to me as soon as convenient. The rate of subscription will be at least 12s. 6d. per quarter, and must necessarily be higher if the original cost of the charts at Copenhagen is raised above the price first named—viz., 4 francs per month.

ROBERT H. SCOTT, Director.

STATUE OF KING ROBERT THE BRUCE AT STIRLING CASTLE.

Westerton, Bridge of Allan, N.B.: Jan. 10, 1875.

In the paper of yesterday Mr. William B. Scott, of Bellevue, Chelsea, states that he was applied to for a subscription to the bronze statue of the Patriot King—Robert the Bruce—which it is proposed to place on the esplanade of Stirling Castle, where it will be seen by thousands of visitors to the ancient Capitol of Scotland. Mr. Scott adds, "the designer (or sculptor) seems to be Mr. George Cruikshank," and enquires if this is the well-known caricaturist of veteran years.

Mr. Cruikshank is the eminent artist, now an octogenarian, the great promoter of temperance, and exhibiting in his own person the great advantages of a well-regulated life. In his youth he was a comic draughtsman, and in his mature years by illustrations of the evil effects of "The Bottle," he has done an immensity of good.

His design for "The Bruce" is excellent, in chain armour, and sheathing his sword after his crowning victory of Bannockburn, while on the granite pedestal are the hands of those who lately were foes now joined in friendship.

It is hoped that patriotic Scotchmen and all admirers of the heroic king will assist the committee to perpetuate and honour his memory by means of this statue.

J. E. ALEXANDER, Major-General.
Chairman of Committee.

BLAKE'S ETCHINGS.

69 Lancaster Gate, Hyde Park, W.:
January 9, 1875.

In the course of working at William Blake's *Prophecies*, I have come across two facts which may interest your readers.

1st. The well-known figure of Nebuchadnezzar in *The Marriage of Heaven and Hell* is without doubt derived from Plate 146 of *The Bible Commentary* (Richard Blome, 1703), which was probably drawn by G. Freeman and engraved by some Dutch or Flemish engraver, as is the case with most of the plates in the same volume. This fact appears to me interesting, as I know of no other instance in which Blake has borrowed an attitude or idea.

2nd. Many catalogues of Wm. Blake's works put down *The Song of Los* (Africa and Asia), 1795, and omit *The Book of Los* of the same year. The "Song" completes the "America" ('93) and "Europe" ('94) series, while the "Book" belongs to the "Urizen" ('94) series.

The *Book of Los* is in the British Museum; it is etched, not printed in Blake's usual way. It contains only three plates of text, a frontispiece, and vignette. FREDK. YORK POWELL.

THE URARI POISON.

Museum, Kew: Jan. 11, 1875.

The quotation at page 23 of the *ACADEMY* for January 2, from the *Japan Herald*, relating to the *Urari* poison of South America, seems to require some further explanation. I have not seen the original article referred to, but the *Urari* poison of Guiana is no new discovery. Sir Walter Raleigh, to whom so many wonderful discoveries have been attributed, is said to have been the first person to

bring to Europe any trustworthy information on the uses and virulence of the poison. The early accounts contained a good deal that was fabulous and mysterious, and even up to recent times the manufacturers of the poison impart a good deal of mystery to its preparation.

At the beginning of the present century Humboldt gave an account of its preparation as witnessed by him on the Upper Orinoko, but it was reserved to Sir Robert Schomburgk to obtain and publish the fullest information regarding it. With great difficulty he obtained from the natives specimens of the Ourari tree, from which it proved to be a species of *Strychnos*—namely, *Strychnos toxifera*, Schomb. In its preparation, which Sir Robert had much difficulty in prevailing upon the natives to allow him to witness—several other ingredients were used besides the bark of the *Strychnos* itself. Indeed, there seems to be no absolute rule as to its manufacture holding good throughout the country where it is used; but each tribe appears to have its own recipe and to use different ingredients. That prepared by the Macusi Indians, however, has the greatest reputation; so much so, indeed, that whole caravans of Indians come from the surrounding States to exchange other articles for it.

As to "incautious handling" of the juice producing "external eruptions on the body, face," &c., it is well known to the natives as well as to toxicologists generally, as proved by experiments made by Professors Virchow and Münter, "that urari by external application is not fatal, but only when it is absorbed by the living animal substance through an incision made in the same." Numerous experiments are recorded of very rapid death after the poison had once touched a wound; but, taken inwardly in very small doses, it has no serious effect. Indeed, the natives, when using it, are said to habitually suck their fingers to remove any that may have attached itself. In larger doses, however, taken inwardly, the urari has proved fatal, so that the statement in the *Japan Herald* that "the antidote lies in the bane itself" ought to be thoroughly considered and practised with caution.

That the *Strychnos toxifera* should yield a varnish equal to that of the Japanese *Rhus* is something quite new, and seems to require further confirmation. It is not in the nature of the Apocynaceae to furnish such a product. Many of them yield a milky juice which is mostly acrid and poisonous, but in some it is perfectly harmless and sufficiently bland to be used as food.

JOHN R. JACKSON.

APPOINTMENTS FOR NEXT WEEK.

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| SATURDAY, Jan. 16, | 1 p.m. | Sale at Christie's of the Works of the late J. G. Middleton. |
| | 2 p.m. | Mr. and Mrs. Kendal in <i>The Lady of Lyons</i> at the Gaiety. |
| | 3 p.m. | Crystal Palace Concert (Mr. Oscar Beringer). |
| | 8 p.m. | Saturday Popular Concert, St. James's Hall (Mdlle. Marie Krebs). |
| MONDAY, Jan. 18, | 3 p.m. | First night of <i>Our Boys</i> at the Yandeville. |
| | 5 p.m. | Asiatic: Professor J. Dowson on "Two Bactrian Pall Inscriptions." |
| | 8 p.m. | London Institution: Mr. Armytage Bakewell on "Cremation." |
| | 8 p.m. | British Architects. Medical. |
| TUESDAY, Jan. 19, | 3 p.m. | Monday Popular Concert, St. James's Hall (Mendelssohn Night). |
| | 3 p.m. | Society of Arts: Cantor Lecture IV. |
| | 7.45 p.m. | Royal Institution: Mr. E. Ray Lankester on "The Pedigree of the Animal Kingdom." |
| | 8 p.m. | Statistical. |
| WEDNESDAY, Jan. 20, | 8 p.m. | Civil Engineers. Pathological. |
| | 8.30 p.m. | Society of Arts. |
| | 1 p.m. | Zoological. |
| | 1 p.m. | Horticultural. |
| THURSDAY, Jan. 21, | 7 p.m. | Meteorological: Anniversary. |
| | 8 p.m. | Society of Arts. |
| | 3 p.m. | Royal Institution: Professor P. M. Duncan on "The Grandeur Phenomena of Physical Geography." |
| | 4 p.m. | Zoological. |
| | 6.30 p.m. | Royal Society Club. |

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| THURSDAY, Jan. 21, | 7 p.m. | Numismatic. |
| | " | London Institution: Professor Rolleston on "The Early Inhabitants of England." II. |
| | 8 p.m. | Linnean. |
| | " | Royal Albert Hall Concert (Herr Wilhelm). |
| FRIDAY, Jan. 22, | 8.30 p.m. | Royal. Antiquaries. |
| | 8 p.m. | Royal Institution: Weekly Evening Meeting. 9 p.m. Sir J. Lubbock on "Wild Flowers and Insects." |
| | " | Quekett Club. |
| | " | Society of Arts: Indian Section; Opening Address by Sir G. Campbell. |
| | 8.30 p.m. | Clinical. |

SCIENCE.

Supplement to Harvesting Ants and Trap-Door Spiders. By J. Traherne Moggridge, F.L.S., F.Z.S. With Specific Descriptions of the Spiders, by the Rev. O. Picard-Cambridge. (London: L. Reeve & Co., 1874.)

OUR readers will welcome with sincere pleasure the *Supplement to Harvesting Ants and Trap-Door Spiders*; but this pleasure will be mingled with deep regret in that so careful and conscientious an observer is now lost to us. In this, his last work, he has supplemented his previous observations by others equally interesting; also intended, as he says in his touching preface, to induce "my readers to take part with me in my pleasure and pursuits, so that we should from that time work together."

It is to be hoped that the labours of this lamented naturalist may encourage others to emulate his example, and that thus clearer light may be thrown upon the hitherto scarcely understood habits of the Arachnidae and those of the Formicidae, which, in spite of the labours of Gould, Huber, Mayr, Ebrard, Forel, and other naturalists, still offer a rich field for investigation.

The dissimilarity of different species of ants, as regards strength, speed, nocturnal, diurnal, and various other habits, as well as the varying date of departure of winged ants from the nest, and the different nature of their food, appear sufficiently to account for the co-existence of several species in a limited area.

Some surprise is expressed by the author that the winged ants, about to leave the nest, should be so carefully guarded by the workers; but the fact is that the winged ants have no sting, and are consequently powerless to defend themselves, while the large jaws of the workers render them formidable champions.

Reflections have been thrown upon Solomon's knowledge of Natural History, inasmuch as he represents the ant as "storing up" for herself: this not being the case with any of our northern ants, so far as we know at present. But, as Mr. Gould wisely suggests, in his *Account of English Ants, 1747*, "the difference of Climates might occasion a different Management. In warmer Regions the Weather is more favourable, and Seasons less severe; therefore Ants may not undergo that Chill which they do in England." Mr. Moggridge has shown that this suggestion of the old English naturalist is perfectly correct, and that some of the southern species do, in the words of Solomon, "provide their meat in the summer, and gather their food in the harvest."

It is a curious fact, that in the first section of the *Mishna*, called the *Zeraim*, mention is made of the granaries of harvesting ants, and special laws are laid down as to the distribution of the grain found in these repositories, clearly showing that the quantity must usually have been considerable. In this distribution, however, I regret to observe that no portion seems to have been allotted to the industrious little insects to whose labour this accumulation of seeds was owing.

But, Mr. Moggridge considers, though the nests observed by him contained on an average sixteen ounces of grain, still, as each granary held but an insignificant quantity, and the store chambers often lay far apart, it is impossible not to believe that those alluded to in the *Mishna* must have been larger and more accessible; they would not otherwise have been deemed worthy of legislative notice. As regards the means employed by ants to prevent the germination of stored-up seeds, these yet remain a secret, and may bear some analogy to the curious instinct which leads *Cerceris* to keep the larvae fresh and good on which her young ones will feed on quitting the egg. With her, however, one operation is sufficient; whereas it appears that the constant presence of ants is necessary to prevent the germination of the granaried seeds. Some Indian ants, on the approach of wet weather, have a peculiar habit of bringing out in heaps the seeds which they have laboriously collected, most of these being then devoured by birds. The author considers that this may be owing to the fact that it would be impossible, during the rainy season, to prevent germination, and even perhaps that a certain number of seeds might spring up and afford to the ants an easy and accessible harvest.

In a certain part of India a kind of adoration is paid to ants, which Mr. Moggridge thinks may have had its origin in a sentiment of combined fear and admiration. And, he says, this is suggested by an Arabian custom of placing an ant in the hand of a new-born child, in order that its virtues may pass into and possess the infant. It is curious to see the analogy between this notion and that of those savage tribes who, in feasting upon a dead hero, imagine themselves to become imbued with his strength and courage, as well, of course, as with that of all the other warriors whom he might previously have eaten.

The question of the domestic animals employed by ants, as also of the various creatures, beetles, crickets, &c., which they keep in their nests for no ostensible purpose, tend with great care, and hasten to rescue at the first approach of danger, is one of great difficulty and interest.

Even less is known of the habits of the Trap-door Spider than of those of the Harvesting Ant. Six kinds only, not including *Atypus*, of the trap-door nest, have as yet been described. With regard to *Atypus*, it seems an undecided point as to whether it forms one or several species; and how, if it feeds on worms, it can contrive to catch them in the long tube which it spins, closing it at one end. Mr. Moggridge strongly recommends visitors to the sandy banks of St. Leonard's, the fir woods of Bournemouth,

or the deep lanes at Torquay, to study the habits of this interesting creature.

Among the trap-door spiders mostly observed by Mr. Moggridge, he found that the *débris* of their food chiefly consisted of the horny coats of ants; the nests being sometimes plunged into the midst of the colony of ants, and most carefully concealed, with an opening only at the top; "this perfect concealment," he says, "being of essential importance to the spiders' success in life, for if they once alarmed the whole colony of ants, and let them know the exact whereabouts of their lurking place, they would soon learn to avoid it," even perhaps to attack and destroy their enemy. In conclusion, it only remains to say that the illustrations are both numerous and excellent, and that there are in this little work good and useful specific descriptions of the spiders, by the Rev. O. Pickard-Cambridge. We can thoroughly recommend the book to our readers.

ELLEN FRANCES LUBBOCK.

Horae Hellenicae: Essays and Discussions on some Important Points of Greek Philology and Antiquity. By Professor Blackie. (London: Macmillan & Co., 1874.)

THE eleven essays reprinted in this volume might, perhaps, conveniently be classified under three heads. I. *Philosophy and History*:—1. "On the Theology of Homer;" 2. "On the Scientific Interpretation of Popular Myths with special reference to Greek Mythology;" 3. "On the Sophists of the Fifth Century B.C.;" 4. "On the Pre-Socratic Philosophy;" 5. "On the Spartan Constitution and the Agrarian Laws of Lycurgus." II. *Literary Criticism*:—1. "On the 'Prometheus Bound' of Aeschylus;" 2. "On the Popular Poetry of Modern Greece;" 3. "Remarks on English Hexameters." III. *Philology and Grammar*:—1. "On the Philological Genius and Character of the Neo-Hellenic Dialect of the Greek Tongue;" 2. "On Onomatopoeia in Language;" 3. "On the Place and Power of Accent in Language." In treating, within narrow limits, a collection of papers at once so miscellaneous and severally so elaborate, we can at most hope to do two things—to indicate the distinctive marks of the volume as a whole, and to draw attention to a few topics of which the treatment appears especially worthy of notice. Now, the great characteristic of Professor Blackie as a scholar, the characteristic which sets its impress on this volume as on everything else that he has written, is that for him the language and the literature of ancient Greece are *living*. His study of them has not been arrested by any arbitrary or conventional limit of classicism, but has been carried on, and has been applied with the same eagerness, to the language and to the thought of modern Greece, while it has been illustrated, with all the brightness of a mind ingenious to a fault, from the resources of a remarkably wide and philosophical culture. Those Dialogues in classical Greek by which Professor Blackie has striven to make the language more present, more real to students of to-day, perfectly express the distinctive bent of his genius as a scholar; and, though there may be room for doubting whether the

ordinary sympathy with Sophocles will be quickened by knowing that, if a Periclean Greek had meant "Let the clergyman say grace," he *might* have said *ὁ τὸ μέλαν φερῶν εὐλογεῖν*, yet, on the whole, this essential vivacity, this spirited resolve that his chosen study shall be living and not dead, which is Professor Blackie's great characteristic, is admirable, and in England is precious. Whatever in Professor Blackie's style occasionally offends against the sense of just measure, is due to this exuberance of vitality; and is, properly speaking, less grotesque than dionysiac. If, after the example of the Dialogues just mentioned, it is lawful to conjecture what Pericles would have said of Professor Blackie in such instances, it seems conceivable that Pericles might have tempered praise and remonstrance in fit proportions by saying, *ὁ ἀνὴρ νεανιεύεται*.

Perhaps of all these essays one of the ablest, the most complete, and the most suggestive is that on the philological character of the Modern Greek language and its relation to Old Greek (pp. 111-166). The origin and development of the Neo-Hellenic dialect is traced from the twelfth century—where two short poems, addressed by a Byzantine monk to the Emperor Manuel in 1143, already attest a popular language of the illiterate masses existing side by side with the traditional literary and ecclesiastical idiom—down to the time when the learning and patriotism of Adamantine Koræes, stimulated by the influences of the French Revolution, finally established this popular language as a definite and substantive type. But at the outset the question arises—Can this Neo-Hellenic language be properly called a *dialect* of the language in which Plato wrote? Professor Blackie's statement of the difference between a new language and a new dialect is at least practically adequate:—

"Whenever the old materials of a language are so modified as that only a very few words remain in their original form, and that more accidentally than systematically, and when the obscurity arising from this source is increased by the admixture, in larger or smaller quantity, of foreign materials, in this case, as in the case of Spanish and Italian, a new language has been created. But whenever the changes induced on the old materials are comparatively slight, and more sporadic than penetrating and pervading in their character, with only a very spare admixture of foreign materials, in this case we shall have only a new *dialect*—not a new *language*."

As the standard of Modern Greek, for the purposes of a philological investigation, Professor Blackie has sought a book written for general circulation before the process of purification and restoration instituted by Koræes had removed some marks of origin and growth; and his choice has fallen on a translation of the *Arabian Nights* into Modern Greek, published at Venice in 1792. After some useful remarks on the necessity of distinguishing corruption from development—a language is corrupted when it forsakes its natural analogies, as in *μαθαίνω* for *μανθάνω*, not when it puts forth new forms agreeable to them, as *ραχινός* and *βρωμερός* by the side of *ραχός* and *βρωμώδης*—Professor Blackie enters on a detailed comparison of modern with ancient Greek. The results of his analysis might be arranged

under the two heads of word-lore and syntax. I. Under the first we have:—(1) Change and extension in the usage of particular words: e.g., *σηκώνω*, "to weigh," now means "to raise." The whole list of examples is very interesting. (2) Growth of new terminations to old roots: e.g., *ἀρχίζω*, *δακρύζω*. (3) Growth of new compound verbs: e.g., *ψυχοπονέω*, "to sympathise." (4) Curtailment of words; and this in seven principal cases: (i.) suppression of a short initial vowel, as *λίγος* for *ὀλίγος*, or of an unaccented initial diphthong, as *ματῶν* for *αἱματῶν*, *δέν* for *οὐδέν*, or a whole initial syllable, as *δάσκαλος* for *διδάσκαλος*: (ii.) suppression of a final *ν*, as *καλός* for *καλόν*, or of the final *-ον* of diminutives, as *παῖδι* for *παῖδιον*: (iii.) suppression of both initial and final syllables, as *μάτι* for *ὀμμάτιον*: (iv.) curtailments of the verb, as *βλάψα* for *ἔβλαψα*, *γραμμένος* for *γεγραμμένος*, *ἐλευθερωθῆναι* for *ἐλευθερωθῆναι*, *γράφει* for *γράφειν*: (v.) absorption of the preposition into the definite article, as, for *εἰς τὴν πόλιν*, *στην πόλιν*, *Dorice* *στανπόλιν*—whence *Stamboul*: (vi.) syncope or synizesis, as *σπίθη* for *σπινθήρ*, *σνάζω* for *συνμβιάζω*: (vii.) crasis, as *νῆσαι* for *ἵνα εἶσαι*, *πώρχεται* for *ὅπου ἔρχεται*. (5) Regular substitution of the diminutive for the simple word; as *ποτάμι* (*ποτάμιον*), *γεροντάκι* (*γεροντάκιον*), &c.—a tendency already manifest in the classical language—e.g. *θηρίον*, *παιδίον*: cf. *oculus*. (6) Lengthening of words, (i.) by the addition of a letter or syllable, either initial ("prosthetic") or final ("paragogic"): e.g. *ἱσκιον* for *σκιά*, *τότες* for *τότε*; (ii.) by the insertion of *γ*, as *ἀγοῦρος* for *ἄωρος*: (iii.) in verbs, by the insertion of *ν* in the pres. indic., as *φέρνω* for *φέρω*, or the addition of *κα* to the 1st aor. pass., as *ἐγράφθηκα* for *ἐγράφθην*. (7) Tendency to abolish anomalies, and to return to the natural analogies of the language; e.g., *ἐφέρθην* as 1st aor. pass. of *φέρω*—a tendency seen most strongly in the abolition of verbs in *μι*—thus *εἶδω* for *εἶδωμι*, &c. II. Under the second head—Syntax—we have: (1) Abridgment of the verbal system, by (i.) loss of the optative, of which the work is done by the conjunctive: (ii.) loss of the infinitive, leading to constructions such as *διὰ τὸ να πρᾶχθῶσι ταῦτα* for *πραχθῆναι ταῦτα*, of which Professor Blackie excuses the clumsiness by our "account of the fact that," and the Latin *propterea quod*: (iii.) loss of the future, which is formed with the help of *θήλω* or *θά*: (iv.) loss of the pluperf., which is formed with *ἔχω*. (2) Disappearance of the dative case: (3) Frequent substitution for the relative *ὅς* of *ὁ ὁποῖος* (*il quale*). (4) Confusion of *ὡς* *ἄν* or *ὅσάν* with the simple *ὡς*, "as." (5) Formation of new prepositions or adverbs, as *συνμύ*, "near," *τὰ ἰσία*=*αὐτίκα*, &c. As to Modern Greek pronunciation, Professor Blackie observes that the classical accent usually keeps its place, though quantity is usually ignored and the vocalisation is corrupted by itacism, especially in regard to *η* and *υ*. Lord Strangford said of Modern Greek that it would be easy to show two Ionisms for one Aeolism or Dorism. Professor Blackie is of a different opinion—holding that the character of the modern language is, on the whole, Aeolo-Doric. As Doric marks, he points to the frequent broad *α* (e.g., *ζητᾶ* for *ζητεῖ*,

φοβῆται for φοβέται), and to the formation of futures in ξ from a present in ζ, not σσ, e.g., *ράζω*, not *ράσσω*; again, the future of *τρομάζω* becomes *τρομάξω*, &c. As an Aeolic mark, he instances the accus. plur. of 1st decl. in αι, not ᾱ, as *Μούσαι* for *Μούρα*.

Grotians and pre-Grotians are no longer the ultimate elements of opinion about the Sophists; "reactions" and subtle counter-reactions have given the controversy a sort of new life lately. Professor Blackie adheres, on the whole, to the pre-Grotian view as set forth by Brucker and Gillies. We wish that we had space to discuss his essay in detail; as it is, we must be content to observe that he seems to us somewhat unduly to extenuate Hegel's appreciation (p. 204) of what was *good* in the Sophists' work; that the severest things in the passage from the *κατὰ σοφιστῶν*, quoted at p. 210, are meant, as is clear from other places in Isocrates, for the Socratics; and that, in the *Journal of Philology*, No. 8 (1872), he will find a reassertion of Grote's view by Mr. H. Sidgwick, in which the utter vagueness of the name of "sophist" is deduced from the reciprocal usage of the word by those whom we call "sophists" and those whom we call "philosophers." Isocrates is *one* type of "sophist" for Plato, and Plato is *one* type of sophist for Isocrates.

The essay "On the Place and Power of Accent in Language" is important, and the subject is one on which the essayist speaks with the double authority of learning and of experiment. The substance of seventy-four pages may perhaps be briefly given thus:—The four affections of articulated sound are (1) volume, (2) stress, (3) pitch, (4) quantity—i.e., duration in time. Accent must always depend on (2) or (3), or both; it has nothing to do with (1) and (4). Greek accent, says Professor Blackie, depends on *both* (2) and (3). "It does not mean elevation of the voice merely, but also, and at the same time, that greater stretch or tension of the voice which produces the emphatic syllable of a word" (p. 345): i.e., it means pitch *plus* stress. The view of Mr. Munro and of Mr. W. G. Clark, whom Professor Blackie controverts, is that the classical Greek accent meant pitch *without* stress; that, in classical verse, metre was determined by quantity alone; but that, by some process, which cannot now be explained, the classical pitch-accent became in later times a stress-accent. One principal question is, how was accent reconciled with quantity in reciting Greek verse? The believers in the pitch-accent are content to say that we do not exactly know, and that, if we did, we probably could not reproduce the effect. Professor Blackie offers this definite solution:—There are two sorts of accent; the accent of spoken language, and the accent (or rhythmical beat) of music. Greek poetry, made to be sung, was governed primarily by quantity, but had also its accent, this accent being, however, the musical, not the colloquial, accent. "Here, therefore," says Professor Blackie, "the Gordian knot is untied." Shall we be pardoned if we venture to think that the Gordian knot has rather been treated as it is said to have been treated by an earlier ex-

pert in heroic measures? The solution is virtually this—that accent, properly so called, was, in classical Greek verse, ignored. While speaking of accents, we may observe that Professor Blackie comments on the euphony of the oxytone accent in Greek; and that *δύρασι* (p. 213), and *οκία* (p. 140), might with advantage be restored to their proper function of illustrating it.

Selections from a volume of such various contents cannot be specimens; and for much which we have been obliged to leave untouched, readers are referred to a collection of essays replete with interest for every student of Greek philology. R. C. JEBB.

SCIENCE NOTES.

PHYSIOLOGY.

THE *Journal of Anatomy and Physiology* for November 1874 is perhaps overweighted with purely anatomical matter. The longest paper is one by Professor Struthers on "Variations in the Vertebrae and Ribs in Man;" in connexion with the same subject, Dr. Goodhart describes three cases of malformation of the spinal column. Professor Watson continues his contributions to the anatomy of the Indian elephant. Mr. J. C. Galton furnishes a note on the Epitrochleo-anconeus muscle, by way of supplement to Wenzel Gruber's monograph on this subject. He regards this muscular anomaly in man as a "functionally useless heirloom, which has descended to us from very remote ancestors;" for, very constantly found in the Edentata, and present in both genera of Monotremes, it becomes gradually less frequent as we ascend the Mammalian scale, and disappears altogether—as a normal constituent of the muscular system—in the anthropoid apes. Dr. Ransome publishes a series of careful measurements, showing the variations in position of the heart's impulse determined by changes of posture. Perhaps the most readable paper is one by the Dean of Clonfert, who handles the well-worn topic of correlation between cerebral development and reasoning power in mammals in a somewhat novel way. He distinguishes three principal stages in the progressive evolution of the reasoning faculty: the first, exemplified in rodents, is the power of distinctly conceiving any particular act on which the animal may be engaged, coupled with inability to realise simultaneously the position of that act in the chain of steps leading to a desired end; the second, as shown by the dog and other carnivora, includes the power of thinking of a particular act with purpose as part of a series leading up to a given object; the third, manifested by the higher apes, is the power of thinking a fact as a case of a general principle. These three stages he believes to stand in an intimate relation to the development of the three cerebral lobes: the anterior lobe serving to "think single objects of sense;" the middle lobe to "think such objects with a sense of a succession of them and as part of that succession;" while the posterior lobe, which makes its first appearance in the monkey tribe, has for its main function "the act of thinking a co-existence or succession of objects as a case of a general principle." The very ingenuity of this hypothesis makes it seem rather premature. The death of experimental data concerning the mental processes of even our domestic animals is very singular; our knowledge consisting mainly of anecdotes, to judge of whose relative credibility demands an uncommon refinement of the critical sense. The number concludes with the usual copious and well-arranged Reports on the Progress of Anatomy and Physiology.

Localisation of Function in the Brain.—Nothnagel (*Virchow's Archiv*, lxii. 2) continues his studies in cerebral physiology with an account of experiments on the function of the optic thalami

in rabbits. Finding the method he had previously adopted—that of destroying limited areas of brain-matter by injecting minute quantities of chromic acid—unsuitable for his present object, he had recourse to mechanical destruction of the tissue of the thalami. This was effected very completely in some instances, without causing damage to any of the neighbouring parts. The results of the total destruction of one or both optic thalami were, in the main, negative. In opposition to statements made by some of the older observers, Nothnagel found no sign of motor paralysis or of cutaneous anaesthesia. The absence of motorial disturbance is in agreement with the results obtained by Ferrier from direct electrical stimulation of the thalami. Nothnagel accordingly concludes that neither the channels along which motor impulses are conveyed from the hemispheres, nor those along which sensory impressions travel from the periphery to the seat of consciousness, traverse the organs in question. One curious phenomenon, however, was exhibited by some of the animals subjected to experiment—a phenomenon which had previously been observed to follow injury of a particular spot in the cortex. When the forepaw was stretched out, the animal made no attempt to withdraw it from its constrained position, though fully able to do so. When the lesion was bilateral this peculiarity was presented by both paws; when one-sided, only by the paw opposite to the injured thalamus. The explanation suggested by the author is that the animal retains only a very inadequate idea of the position of the extended paw, owing to impairment of one of the faculties usually grouped under the head of "muscular sense." This would lend some support to the hypothesis of Meynert, based on purely anatomical grounds, that the optic thalamus serves to discharge combined muscular movements in answer to stimuli conveyed from the sensory surfaces of the periphery, without the intervention of consciousness. Impressions of such combined movements are transmitted from the thalami to the grey matter of the hemispheres, where they are stored up and employed as material for the subsequent volitional reproduction of such movements.

Further researches by Hitzig on the convolutions will be found by those interested in the subject in Reichert and Dubois-Reymond's *Archiv*, No. 4, for 1874. An abstract of them is furnished by Ferrier in the *Medical Record* for January 6.

Proportionate Amount of Iron in the Blood.—Picard (*Comptes Rendus*, Nov. 30, 1874) contributes the results of an enquiry conducted under the auspices of Cl. Bernard. He finds that the amount of iron in defibrinated dog's blood may vary considerably (.092 per cent. in a young, well-nourished animal; .041 in one that had been weakened by previous loss of blood). But on comparing the amount of iron contained in 100 cubic centimetres of blood with the amount of oxygen which a similar quantity of the same blood, previously saturated, may be made to yield *in vacuo*, he finds the ratio between them to be constant and equal to 2.3. The percentage of iron in the blood may thus be an index to its "respiratory capacity." He goes on to enquire whether a reserve fund of iron is contained in any of the viscera, and finds that the spleen contains upwards of .2 per cent. The liver stands next to the spleen in this respect; but it never contains a greater proportion than the blood.

Effect of Hybernation on the Composition of Organs in the Marmot.—A series of analyses on this subject are furnished by Aeby (*Archiv für experimentelle Path. und Pharmacologie*, vol. iii. part 2). Much water is lost by the blood and muscular tissue, the former yielding up a larger proportion than the latter; this is accounted for by the urinary secretion and exhalation from the lungs and skin persisting throughout the winter sleep. The brain and spleen, however, retain their normal amount of water; just as they do in death from privation of liquids. The mineral constituents of the blood and muscular tissue are

much reduced; while they undergo a positive increase in the liver, spleen, and brain. An abundant formation of glycogen takes place in the first of these organs.

Influence of Diet on the Composition of the Bones.—A fresh set of observations on this interesting subject is contributed by Weiske (*Zeitschrift für Biologie*, Bd. x. Heft. 4). He has already shown that by depriving even growing animals of their due supply of lime and phosphoric acid, no change is wrought in the chemical composition of their bones. He now brings forward evidence to show that if lime be withdrawn as completely as possible from the food, no further increase of bone-tissue takes place; that, on the contrary, the skeleton wastes just as in death from general inanition. An increase or diminution of any one of the mineral constituents of bone in the diet of an animal does not seem to produce any corresponding variation in the composition of its osseous tissue. Lastly, it is impossible to substitute some unusual element (magnesium, strontium) for lime in the bones, by introducing it in the food, either with or without a proportionate abstraction of the ordinary mineral constituents from the animal's diet. (This is in striking opposition to the results arrived at by Papillon.)

Action of certain Biliary Derivatives on the Animal Economy.—Feltz and Ritter had previously ascertained (*Comptes Rendus*, July 13, 1874) that the introduction of large doses of the taurocholate or glycocholate of soda into the circulation, caused speedy death with epileptiform convulsions. They now (*ibid.*, December 14, 1874) investigate the action of the sodic salts of cholalic and choloidic acid, that of dyslysin, glycocholl and taurin, in a similar manner. These substances are found to be devoid of active properties. Accordingly, they conclude that the toxic action of the salts of the bile-acids cannot be explained by their undergoing dissociation in the body. The injection of the pigmentary principles of the bile produced no very marked effect; cholesterin gave rise to accidents of an embolic order only.

ASTRONOMY.

Shadows of Jupiter's Satellites.—During the last four years Mr. Burton has frequently observed that the shadows of Jupiter's satellites projected on the disc of the planet during transit were elliptical, and that this was, as a rule, the case only when Jupiter was near quadrature, and the shadow therefore seen obliquely. Mr. Burton's explanation of the phenomenon is that the shadow falls on cumulus clouds, which give rise to the markings on Jupiter's disc, these clouds being dark and therefore invisible wherever the shadow falls, but in full sunshine scattering the light in all directions. The shadow will thus present exactly the same appearance as a cylindrical hole which sends no light to the eye, but allows light from the bright clouds forming its boundary to pass; and such a hole, when viewed obliquely, will appear the more elliptical the greater its depth. From his estimations of the ellipticity on different occasions, Mr. Burton has deduced a depth of atmosphere of from 3,000 to 9,000 miles, a result which would accord well with the small density of Jupiter as a whole, only a quarter that of the earth. On the hypothesis that the bright clouds are scattered at different levels in an atmosphere of considerable thickness, the observed decrease of brightness near the limb is explained by supposing the sunlight to pass freely into space through interstices between the clouds near the limb, so that none of it is received back again by the eye. Mr. Burton's paper is given in the *Monthly Notices* for December.

Accuracy of the Tables of Venus.—Mr. Hind has compared the observations of the Transit of Venus made in Egypt with the predicted times deduced from Le Verrier's tables, and has found an apparent error of only a few seconds of time,

hardly exceeding the discordance between the several observations. Considering that a single second of arc corresponds to the motion of Venus in twenty-five seconds of time, this result is extremely gratifying, and tends to increase our confidence in the value for the sun's distance which M. Le Verrier has deduced indirectly from his Tables of Venus. The error of the tables formerly in use was no less than fifteen minutes for the time of egress at Alexandria.

Spectrum of Coggia's Comet.—Dr. Vogel, in the *Astronomische Nachrichten*, No. 2018, discusses his own and other spectroscopic observations of Coggia's comet, his object being to determine the positions of the brightest parts as well as of the edges of the three bands seen. The zero used for his scale was the middle point between two of the magnesium lines (b_2 and b_4), and every precaution was taken to avoid any disturbance of the spectroscopy; but the method seems hardly so satisfactory as that of direct comparison with the carbon spectrum seen at the same time, and side by side with that of the comet. While admitting that the three bands in the spectra of different comets have their edges on the red in the same positions in the spectrum, Dr. Vogel considers that the place of maximum brightness in each band varies, which may, in his opinion, arise from the different conditions of pressure and temperature of the gas (whether a compound of carbon or not) of which comets appear to be composed. At the same time Dr. Vogel remarks that the positions of the brightest points of the bands of dioxide of carbon, with which the comet was directly compared at Greenwich, do not agree with those of the hydrocarbons, which latter he considers more closely to resemble the spectra of comets, a conclusion which differs entirely from that of English spectroscopists who have made the carbon spectrum their special study. At the same time it is quite possible that Dr. Vogel was using dioxide of carbon under different conditions, and in any case a direct comparison of two spectra must have more value than any scale readings, however carefully made.

The Velocity of Light.—A new determination of the velocity of light has been made by M. Cornu, under the auspices of the French Academy of Sciences, on the plan devised by M. Fizeau, the time taken by light to travel twice over the distance between the Paris Observatory and the tower of Montlhéry, twenty-three kilometres distant, being determined. The light of a Drummond lime-light, after passing through a telescope nearly nine metres long, was thrown in the direction of Montlhéry, and reflected back from that place by a collimator (or telescope without an eye-piece) pointed in the direction of the light, and having a plane reflector at its focus, the returning beam being viewed by the same telescope through which it first passed. At the focus of this telescope a toothed wheel can be made to rotate very rapidly (1,600 times a second), and between the teeth of this wheel the light passes out, but on its return the wheel has turned a little, and the observation consists in noting at what rate the wheel is turning when the returning light is cut off by the interposition of a tooth in place of the space between two teeth. When this is the case the wheel must have turned through half a tooth, one and a half teeth, two and a half, or some similar number, in the interval taken by light to go and return, so that from the number of teeth and the rate of rotation this interval is determined. M. Cornu finds a velocity of 300,400 kilometres a second, a result which is probably true to one-thousandth part. The distance of the sun indirectly follows in two ways from this result: (1) from eclipses of Jupiter's satellites which happen earlier when the earth is nearest to Jupiter than when she is farthest off, light having in the latter case to traverse the additional space of the earth's orbit, which is found by observations of these eclipses to make a difference of nearly sixteen minutes, so that with the velocity of light just found, the sun's parallax comes out $8''.88$; (2)

the motion of the earth in her orbit causes an apparent displacement in the positions of stars, known as aberration, which is equal to the earth's velocity divided by the velocity of light; the earth's velocity in her orbit being found in this way from the observed displacement and the velocity of light; the size of the orbit described and the sun's distance follow at once from the length of the year; the sun's parallax is thus found to be $8''.88$ or $8''.80$ according as Bradley's or Struve's value of aberration is taken. From a comparison of observations of Venus with theory, Le Verrier deduced a value $8''.86$, and the observations of the parallax of Mars in 1862 gave $8''.84$.

Melbourne Observatory.—M. Ellery's reports for 1873 and 1874 on the work done at the Melbourne Observatory have been published. A large number of meridian observations have been made, though the zone work has not been resumed, and some excellent photographs of the Moon have been taken with the great Melbourne reflector of four feet aperture. The work for which this fine instrument was specially ordered has not progressed very rapidly, only two nebulae having been examined on twenty-seven nights in the course of thirteen months, and the Board of Visitors specially recommend that no consideration whatever be allowed to interfere with the important work of scrutinising the nebulae. At present visitors are admitted to the Observatory in the evening, and this causes great interruption, so that the adoption of the rule, rigorously carried out in this country wherever real work is done, of excluding all visitors while observations are being made, seems imperative. Mr. Ellery has made extensive preparations for the Transit of Venus, three stations having been equipped, and his observations of accelerated egress for comparison with the Egyptian results will be of great value in consequence of the failure of all the New Zealand parties to observe this phase. Photographs have also been taken, and double-image measures of cusps made.

Orbit of ζ Cancri.—The remarkable triple star ζ Cancri has been observed assiduously since 1826 by W. Struve and his son Otto Struve, who has now reduced all the observations and determined the orbits of the three stars. The system is composed of a close pair of stars about $1''$ apart, with a third star $5''.5$ off, and the apparent path of one of the close pair about the other is an eccentric circle (the perspective view of the ellipse which is really described), with a period of sixty-two years. This is on the supposition that the attraction of the third star may be neglected on the average of all the observations, the problem of determining the motion of three mutually attracting bodies being beyond the reach of our present analysis. The path of the third star seems very remarkable, consisting of a series of loops, each described in about twenty years, and M. O. Struve finds that its motion may be satisfactorily represented by supposing the third star to describe a small circle of $0''.3$ radius in twenty years, the centre of this circle being carried uniformly round the other two stars, so that the path of the third star would be an epicycle, which might result from the attraction of a dark body in its immediate neighbourhood.

Planetary Tables.—In presenting to the French Academy his theory of Neptune, M. Le Verrier gives a general review of the work he has carried out without intermission for the last thirty-five years, forming a complete theory of the eight principal planets, with tables of their motions far exceeding in accuracy anything yet produced. The comparison of theory with observation led M. Le Verrier to conclude that there must be some unknown mass attracting Mercury, and probably placed between that planet and the Sun; but the existence of any such planet has not been established by observation, though it is quite conceivable that the attracting mass may consist of a large number of asteroids too minute to be individually perceived. In the case of Mars, a

similar discrepancy between theory and observation led to a result of the same kind, but the attracting mass required was found by increasing the Earth's mass by an eighth part, which involved a decrease in the received value of the Sun's distance of one twenty-fifth part, and the same conclusion followed from the discussion of the motions of Venus and the Earth, agreeing remarkably with the value of the Sun's parallax deduced from the velocity of light, from the measures of Mars made in 1862, and from the re-discussion of the transit of Venus in 1769.

Der Naturforscher quotes, from a paper of Herr P. Ascherson in the *Botanische Zeitung*, some remarks on the plants of the Libyan Desert observed in Rohlfs' expedition. The greater part show their struggle with local conditions through their half-globular form, and either a minimum or a suppression of leaf surface. The leaves are often reduced to fleshy scales, or overgrown with a protection of thick hair. An armature of thorns and prickles is very common; even in the usually harmless family of grasses the collector is likely to be wounded by the sharp points of *Aristida pungens* and *Vilfa spicata*. Most of the desert plants are destitute of the pleasant hue of green; only *Schouwia Schimperii* and *Scopolia nutica* decorate themselves with beautiful broad leaves of that colour. These plants also differ from the majority in their bright purple and dark violet flowers. An inconspicuous inflorescence adapted to wind-blown dust is most common. The seeds are mostly small, numerous, and frequently furnished with feathers or wings, which give them a chance of reaching a spot where they can develop. Nearly all possess the property of working up through the sand as it threatens to overwhelm them. The tamarisk especially exhibits this property, and often reaches a height of from 3 to 5 metres in the sand-hills. The group of stemless palms are exceptions to this rule. Their thick leaves keep the sand back, and they are frequently found at the bottom of sand-hollows. The greater part of the wild plants growing in the oases appear dependent upon the cultivation of those spots, and would soon perish if it were abandoned. Most of them seem wanderers from the Mediterranean.

PLANTS of the Mallow family have long been known to yield useful fibres as well as mucilage, and we learn from *Comptes Rendus* that MM. Bouju frères have devised a mechanical process of treating the stems of Gombo (*Abelmoschus*, or *Hibiscus, esculentus*) so as to afford a pulp which can be converted into good paper—equal, so it is said by M. Landrin, to the best made from rags. The plant grows abundantly in Syria and Egypt, and is cultivated for its edible fruits. The MM. Bouju previously patented methods of using the fibre for cordage and woven fabrics. Gombo paste, sometimes used in medicine, is made from a gummy and mucilaginous substance, extracted from the plant by water, which the French have named *gombine*. An analysis of gombo gives:—

| | |
|-----------------------------------|-------|
| Water | 13.82 |
| Gombine | 19.50 |
| Cellulose | 60.75 |
| Resin | 0.93 |
| Mineral matters | 4.75 |
| Substances not reckoned | .25 |
| | 100.0 |

THE action of electro-magnets on the spectra of certain gases forms the subject of a communication to the French Academy by M. J. Chautard. A Geissler tube with a straight constricted portion is placed between the poles of a magnet, at a short distance from the slit of a spectroscopic, and a micrometer is arranged, so adjusted to the Fraunhofer lines as to allow the wave lengths of the different colours to be read off with facility. A second spectrum of the gas employed, in a tube not affected by the magnet, is also brought into the field for comparison. Hydrogen, chlorine,

bromine, iodine, oxygen, sulphur, selenium, and nitrogen have been experimented with, and the electric discharge through them made either with a coil, or a Holtz machine. The light emitted by sulphur and selenium was much diminished by the action of the magnet, and sometimes extinguished in the course of a few minutes. Chlorine and bromine were affected in the opposite way; their lustre was augmented, and numerous fine lines burst out, especially in the green. M. Chautard remarks that these facts may have some importance in cosmic spectroscopy, and in the obscure relations that exist between light and magnetism.

THE forms assumed by micro-fungi are so various, and many points in the history of their development so obscure, that no one acquainted with them would be surprised at fresh discoveries proving that almost any number of so-called species are only varieties, differentiated by special conditions of growth. M. Duval claims to have proved that special ferments, lactic, benzoic, and uric, can be obtained from the alcoholic ferment, yeast, sown in appropriate substances. He maintains the doctrine of the mutability of microscopic germs, and, while admitting that M. Pasteur is right in affirming that no organism arises except from a pre-existent germ, he supports his former master, F. A. Pouchet, in declaring that the atmospheric germs are not actual ferments, but capable of becoming such, or of assuming other forms, according to the nature of the medium in which they develop. He refers to a paper in the *Journal de l'Anatomie et Physiologie* for detailed information. He regards "the functional mobility of the living cell to be in biology analogous to isomerism in chemistry. The study of mutability applied to the genesis of animal ferments," he expects, "will throw a clear light upon zymotic diseases, and he anticipates that it will soon overthrow the notion of specific miasma." (*Comptes Rendus*, November 16, 1874.)

WITH reference to the November meteors, M. Chapelas, in a note to the French Academy, observes that, notwithstanding the state of the atmosphere on the nights of the 12th, 13th, 14th, was unfavourable, it may still be concluded from the observations found practicable, that there was no special shower this year. He states that it has often been noticed that the November display, unlike that of August, is never preceded by a meteoric recrudescence, but comes abruptly. The negative result of 1874 need not occasion surprise, as M. Coulvier-Gravier has shown that for some years after the great exhibition of 1833 none appeared, and all observers noticed that there was a remarkable increase of meteors on the November nights in years closely preceding 1866, when the quantity was truly remarkable.

"If," says M. Chapelas, "we attribute the origin of the November shooting stars to the dispersion of the matter constituting Tempel's comet, and forming a meteoric current, which, according to the theory, ought to correspond pretty closely with the comet's orbit, we may conclude from the preceding observations that this current is far from filling the entire orbit; that the densest part of it occupies a very limited space; that a less dense portion follows, and that the rest of the ellipse is either empty or contains only an insignificant quantity of meteors."

He adds that it will be interesting to see whether the meteoric current of November 27 exhibits the same peculiarities, and in the same way contrasts with the August Persides, which appear every year, though with variable intensity.

THE *Numismatic Chronicle*, vol. xiv. part iii., contains four papers. The first, by Mr. Gardner, of the British Museum, is devoted to the description of a very remarkable coin of Heraüs, king of the Sakas or Scythians, a ruler unknown in history, but proved by this coin, or rather by the inferences drawn by Mr. Gardner from it, to have held sway in Bactria at the end of the second or the beginning of the first century B.C. The Greek

inscription on the coin (*Ἡραίου Σάκα Κοιράνου*) is remarkable, not only for the strangeness of the words employed—*Ἡραίου* instead of *Βασιλείου*, and *κοιράνου*, which the Saka king seemed to imagine represented Khan—but also for the orthography, *ρ* being represented by an upright stroke closely resembling the *ι* on the same coin (unless indeed that *ι* be also a *ρ*). The types are—obverse, bust of king; reverse, king on horseback crowned by Nike. It is a highly interesting fact that the Chinese writers assert that the kings of Ki-pin (by which they meant some tract of country not far from Cabool, at that time ruled by Saka kings) struck money bearing on one side the effigy of a man, on the other a horseman. Of this Saka coinage of Ki-pin, Mr. Gardner believes this to be the first certain example. The next article, also by Mr. Gardner, is on "Thasian Manubria," giving a list of the stamps on the handles of Thasian amphorae preserved in the British Museum, and discussing the use of these stamps. M. Ferdinand Bompis, an authority on the subject of Macedonian coins, is the author of the third paper, on a coin of Ichnae; while the fourth is a continuation of Mr. Cochran Patrick's series of papers on "The Annals of the Scottish Coinage," this number bringing the annals down to the year 1660. The part concludes with notices of the foreign numismatic journals, and a review of Mr. Grueber's *Catalogue of Roman Medallions*.

MEETINGS OF SOCIETIES.

ENTOMOLOGICAL SOCIETY (Monday, January 4).

SIR SIDNEY SMITH SAUNDERS, C.M.G., President, in the Chair.—Mr. Stevens exhibited varieties of *Diloba caeruleocephala* and *Hibernia defoliaria*, bred from larvae taken near Brighton. Mr. Smith exhibited a box of hymenopterous insects, collected in the neighbourhood of Calcutta by Mr. Rothney. It comprised several rare species of Formicidae and Fossomes, and also many undescribed species of Apidae, among which were two species of *Nomia*, one of them with remarkable capitate antennae.

Mr. McLachlan made some remarks on the December Moth (*Cheimatolica brumata*), which he had observed one evening during the recent severe frost, attracted in great numbers to the gas lamps in the neighbourhood of Lewisham. Mr. Weir remarked on the importance of ascertaining whether they were hibernated specimens, or whether they had been newly hatched during the severe weather.

A letter was read from Mr. R. S. Morrison, of George Town, Colorado, expressing a wish to be placed in communication with any entomologists who might be interested in the insect faunas of the higher altitudes (8,000 to 14,000 feet), which he considered should be more fully investigated.

The Secretary exhibited a small bottle containing specimens of a Mantis, forwarded to him from Sarawak by Mr. C. C. de Crespigny. He stated that while sitting at table he was attracted by the unusual appearance of a column of ants crossing it, but on looking more narrowly he observed that they were not ants, but a species of Mantis, and he believed them to be full-grown insects, but that they had no wings. Mr. McLachlan, however, observed that some of the specimens had rudimentary wings, and the President and others believed that they would prove to be larvae, and not perfect insects.

Part IV. of the Transactions for 1874 was on the table.

SOCIETY OF BIBLICAL ARCHAEOLOGY (Tuesday, January 5).

S. BIRCH, LL.D., President, in the Chair.—The following papers were read:—

a. *Ethiopian Annals*.—Translated by G. Maspero.—*Stèle of King Horsiaten*.—This stèle, the text of which has been published in Mariette's *Monuments divers*, relates the war of King Horsiaten.

ten against the people of the Nahasi Land, and the district of Maddi (the Mataia of the Greeks). It then describes the grand ceremonies which took place at the Temple of Amen of Napata, after the Ethiopian king had obtained success, which he as usual attributes to the direct favour of the deity. Some further adorations to Osiris, and a long list of votive offerings conclude the inscription, which, as well as that which followed, was accompanied with critical and geographical notes.

b. Stèle of King Nastosenen.—This interesting stèle, which has been partly translated by Brugsch-Bey in his *Géographie*, relates the wars made by King Nastosenen against the various petty monarchs of Southern Egypt, including Dongola and the district around Wady Halfa, and many other districts yet unidentified. After recording these victories the stèle relates the adorations paid by the king to his tutelary deity Amen of Napata, and the amount of treasure and offerings presented to the temple of that divinity.

c. On some Cypriote Antiquities discovered by General di Cesnola. Described by S. Birch, LL.D. —In opening up the foundations of a ruined temple at Salamis, a variety of votive statues and terra-cotta figures were discovered, executed in various styles of art, and with a greater or less degree of care. The principal object was a small limestone pediment, the tympanum of which was filled up with two draped female figures, represented as upholding the architrave, while at either of the angles was figured a crouching lion, having the tongue protruded over the lower lip, as is common in archaic Greek art. The whole were in very low relief, and were represented as facing the spectator. On the plinth below was a long Cypriote inscription, filled in with red paint.

ROYAL ASTRONOMICAL SOCIETY (Friday, Jan. 8).

A LETTER was read from the private secretary of the King of Siam offering on the part of his Majesty to entertain as his private guests any English astronomers who might go out to observe the total eclipse of the Sun on April 5. The Astronomer Royal communicated a letter from Lord Lindsay giving an account of his observations of the Transit of Venus at Mauritius. Though the phenomenon of most importance, ingress, was lost through cloud and the low altitude of the Sun, a large number of valuable measures were taken with the double-image micrometer and with the heliometer, and out of nearly 300 photographs, 100 were selected for future measurement. Mr. Meldrum at the Mauritius observatory appears to have secured a satisfactory observation of ingress. No news has yet been received from Rodrigues, but as the Sun is somewhat higher there at ingress, there is a better prospect of complete success. A letter was also read from Admiral Ommaney, who observed the transit at Thebes. Mr. De La Rue called attention to the discrepancy of four seconds between the results of two observers at Cairo, which he seemed inclined to attribute to a difference in the optical performance of their telescopes, and he urged that not only should the personal equations of the various observers be determined, as had been done by the help of the model both at Greenwich and at the several stations, but that the effect of different telescopes on the observation should be found on the return of the expeditions, those used by different nations being carefully compared in extension of the plan already carried out at Greenwich. A paper from the Astronomer Royal was read, giving the results of the measures of cusps made at the Royal Observatory, Greenwich, during the solar eclipse of last October, from which it appeared that the error of Hansen's Lunar Tables at that epoch was about 6"; this comparison with the tables at the time of new moon can only be made when an eclipse occurs, and observations within several days of new moon are rare.

LONDON ANTHROPOLOGICAL SOCIETY.

(Annual Meeting, January 8).

DR. CHARNOCK, F.S.A., President, in the Chair. After reading Report of Council, the President delivered the annual address.

ASSOCIATION FOR THE IMPROVEMENT OF GEOMETRICAL TEACHING (Tuesday, January 12).

THE fifth annual meeting was held on Tuesday, January 12, at University College, Dr. Hirst, F.R.S., President, in the Chair. The report of the committee showed satisfactory progress during the past year. At the beginning of 1874 the treatment of Proportion (*Euclid*, books v. vi.) had for some time occupied the Association, and there were then under consideration several methods, comprising (1) modifications of Euclid's system, in which multiples of the magnitudes to be compared are taken, as when we compare French and English measure by saying that 8 kilomètres are equal to 5 miles; (2) the method of aliquot parts, in which common measures of the magnitudes are used, as when we divide both into mètres, and say that a mile is 1,609 mètres, and a kilomètre 1,000 mètres; (3) a geometrical method for straight lines only. A further question had arisen, whether it was desirable, while insisting on a rigorous treatment of the subject, to supplement it by a simpler scheme applicable to commensurable quantities only. Several criticisms had been laid before the Association, including two valuable papers by Mr. Alexander Ellis, F.R.S., in which he dwells especially on the necessity of giving students a clear conception of *continuous magnitude*, as distinguished from magnitude numerically measured. During the year the sub-committee (Messrs. Hirst, Merrifield, Hayward, Wilson, and Moulton), have drawn up a syllabus of propositions on Proportion and its geometrical applications, containing a rigorous treatment of the theory of Proportion, based on Euclid, and a short conspectus of the chief definitions and results, intended as a preface to its geometrical applications, and designed rather for illustration than for rigorous proof. Dr. Hirst, in introducing the discussion, alluded to the advance of public opinion in England on the subject of geometrical teaching, which, it was now generally admitted, needed to be made more plastic, and hoped that the publication of the work of the Association, accompanied by a tabular comparison of the order it had adopted with that of Euclid, would facilitate the recognition by examining bodies of some liberty of choice in the study of geometry. He also referred to the progress of a similar movement in Italy, where the subject was much discussed in educational journals, and where, though Euclid had been temporarily rehabilitated in order to get rid of inferior text-books, it was intended ultimately to adopt some other system. Mr. Hayward, after calling attention to the way in which the late Professor De Morgan's ideas are gradually influencing the mathematical teaching of the country, explained the principles on which the sub-committee had drawn up their syllabus. In justification of the popular treatment of Proportion prefixed to its geometrical applications, he pointed out that while Euclid insisted on a perfect definition, modern teachers, while aiming eventually at the same precision and comprehensiveness, preferred to begin with less general and therefore easier conceptions. Mr. Ellis expressed a general approval of the work of the sub-committee, and suggested a few modifications in matters of detail. It was resolved to publish the syllabus of the Association, which is now complete as far as regards the subjects treated in the first six books of Euclid, and to submit it to the committee of the British Association.

ROYAL SOCIETY (Thursday, January 14).

THE following papers were read:—By Mr. J. W. L. Glaisher, "On a Class of Identical Relations

in the Theory of Elliptic Functions;" by Mr. W. J. Johnson, "On some remarkable Changes produced on Iron and Steel by the action of Hydrogen and Acids."

FINE ART.

SIXTH WINTER EXHIBITION OF OLD MASTERS AT THE ROYAL ACADEMY.

(Second Notice.)

To find fault with names and descriptions in a collection of this kind is an easy task. Half an hour's walk through the gallery may furnish any one with a stock of observations of that kind. But to find fault with names and descriptions, and especially to find fault with them at random, is not criticism. I have to return to the charge, and to plead, in face of what has been written in more quarters than one, that it is deplorable when misnomers and misprints, real and imaginary, are harped upon ungraciously and with insufficient knowledge. It is deplorable to throw discredit and discouragement on that work by which the Royal Academy deserves best of us. The important thing is that the private treasures of the country should be brought out for enjoyment, for comparison and study, and should thus become, so far as opportunity extends, the property of us all. The Royal Academy in its winter exhibitions creates the most precious of opportunities for this end. To be ungracious and incautious in fault-finding is the worst way of using the present and the best way of spoiling future opportunities. What society would continue to invite, or what owners to contribute, if that was to be their reward? As it is, the task of invitation and collection is not so easy; the sense of obligation to the community in private owners, as I said last week, is not so universal; the difficulty is to prevail upon private owners and conciliate them. In addition to the difficult task of inviting and collecting, the Royal Academy, it is often urged, should provide the visitor to their winter exhibitions with a catalogue he could safely trust and learn from. No doubt that would help the public and make the undertaking perfect; but I wonder what idea of the labour of commentary and criticism is entertained by those who are so ready to thrust it upon others? An accurate critical catalogue of such a gathering of old masters would take a body of experts to compile, and they would need to be a longer time about it than the pictures are absent from their masters' homes. The only time for the research, the commentary and comparison, by which the foundations of such a catalogue must be laid, is while the pictures are actually under exhibition; and the visitor requires some kind of catalogue from the opening day. The Royal Academy, as it seems to me, follow the one practical plan in giving each picture, not their own warrant, but the name its owner gives it. But at least, it will be said, they are bound to correct obvious errors. I think they are bound to keep out obvious forgeries, imitations, or copies; but, with regard to what they take in, were they once to begin correcting, where and on what principle should they stop? Questions of attribution and identification are only now and then at all obvious; in nine cases out of ten they are extremely delicate; and where shall the line be drawn? It seems to me that herein the public should look for enlightenment, not to the members of the Royal Academy, whose business it is to be painters, but to those who make the history and criticism of painting their business, and who have leisure and ought to have patience to do the business well. Their task must needs include plenty of negative points, corrections of attribution and the rest; but why should not these be made with exactness and deference, instead of at random? and why should criticism be more eager about these than about the positive points, the value and meaning, the beauty and delight, which are there to be made far more abundantly?

To-day, according to our programme, we deal with subjects of religion. The chief example of Florentine religious art in the exhibition, at least the largest and most intact (No. 181), raises points of the negative kind which reflect upon others besides the compilers of the present catalogue. It is a square altarpiece in tempera by Cosimo Rosselli, excellently preserved. Of the great painters who worked for Sixtus IV. on the walls of his chapel in the Vatican, between 1480 and 1486, Cosimo Rosselli was the weakest, the least forward in the perfections of his time. Vasari has a tale, which most likely is no more than a tale, that he won the prize over his betters in this enterprise because, trusting to the Pope's little skill in painting, he had made a great show in his compositions with gilding and fine colours. To be profuse with gilding and fine colours is not in truth a weakness of Cosimo Rosselli; but it is his weakness to be a little fantastical and at the same time a little dull. He is far below either of his Florentine fellow-workmen in the Sistine chapel—below Botticelli in individuality and sentiment, below Ghirlandaio in universality and grasp. This mystical picture represents him at his best. The subject is an unusual one in the free art of Italy after the Middle Age. It shows the vision of a symbolical crucifix, or holy cross, adored by a choir of seraphs and angels in the sky and a group of saints on earth. Christ is extended on the cross, impassive, in royal robes and crown, according to a devotional fashion of early art. One foot of Christ touches the sacramental chalice placed on the ground beneath the crucifix: his straight black robe has a rich jewelled border and a fringe of gold, green, and red. Three crosses are embroidered above his girdle, and one on each of the white shoes upon his feet. Behind the crucifix there are the usual flying heads of cherub and seraph, with four angels ringing them about, and two more angels above, scattering roses from right and left. The head of Christ is empty enough in character; but in these cherubs and angels there is much sweetness and invention; the colour in its quiet tones is very pleasant, and the glimpse of landscape—lake and promontory with a low horizon—has a very fine character. But the saints are the best part. On the left stands Dominic in his character of Preacher, pointing to the open book with text on one page and an illumination on the other. Below him kneels John the Baptist in the usual coat of camel's hair. On the right stands another Dominican in the plain habit of the order, only with small black crosses embroidered on a white band about his shoulders. This is Antonino, the beloved Archbishop; one of the most amiable figures of Italian history in the fifteenth century. He was appointed to the see of Florence by Eugenius IV., upon the recommendation, as is said, of Fra Angelico, his friend and cloister-brother of St. Mark's, who had himself been offered the dignity and declined it. This picture was of course painted after his death, which happened in 1459; but Cosimo, born in 1430, must have known his features familiarly; and the type stands well for that of the good ascetic who, "without horses and without vestments and without attendants and without ornaments of any kind in his house," as Vespasiano says, exercised for years the purest and healthiest moral influence both upon public and private affairs in the peninsula. Below him kneels St. Mark the Evangelist, with the gospel in his left hand and the pen in his right, and his symbol the lion (whose head only we can see) beside him. Now Vasari, in his life of Cosimo Rosselli (vol. v. p. 30), tells how "in St. Mark's, at Florence, upon a panel in the chapel of the cloth-weavers, he wrought the holy cross in the midst, and at the sides St. Mark, St. John the Evangelist, St. Antonino Archbishop of Florence, and other figures." Mr. Fuller Maitland, it is evident, sets before us here the very picture mentioned by Vasari. Ros-

selli is not likely to have painted such a subject twice; and to have to read for "other figures" Dominic, and for "John the Evangelist" John the Baptist, is the kind of erratum we are used to in Vasari. Vasari has had followers more careless than himself. Dr. Waagen (vol. iii. p. 4) seeing a second saint in the Dominican habit and a saint with a lion beside him, dubbed them hastily St. Peter (sc. Peter Martyr) and St. Jerome; although the Dominican has not the cleaver which is the indispensable sign of Peter Martyr, and although the saint with the lion has no other resemblance to Jerome. And Messrs. Crowe and Cavalcaselle, with less than their customary precision, while they point out that this is "possibly" the original spoken of by Vasari, repeat Waagen's error about Peter Martyr and Jerome. Lastly, the Academy catalogue in its turn writes Jerome for Mark, and, recognising the Archbishop, spells him Antonio instead of Antonino. Let the reader forgive me for dwelling on these details; but errors of detail had hitherto stood in the way of an identification which may be taken as certain. Another altarpiece from the same collection is hung as a pendant to the Cosimo Rosselli. This is a devotional *Ascension of the Virgin*, ascribed by Young Ottley, whose property it was and who engraved it, to Giotto; and now to Fra Angelico. Messrs. Crowe and Cavalcaselle (vol. i. p. 589) pass it as the work of Angelico. The Virgin in pale lilac drapery, and with hands folded, sits within an almond-shaped glory barred with clouds and sustained by angels; the tomb below her is in the foreground of a landscape of white rocks; roses and lilies have burst into blossom within the tomb, and Francis and Bonaventura kneel to right and left in front of it. This cannot, I think, be the work of Angelico. I see neither his science of composition, nor his delicate draughtsmanship, nor his purity and vividness of colour, nor his holy inwardness of sentiment. The Virgin's head, especially her mouth, has been renewed; and so have the gilt parts in general. Otherwise judgment is free; and this low-toned painting with its stiff Virgin, its angels with their short arms in false drawing sustaining the *mandorla*, its weakness here and archaism there, belongs to another school than that of Florence. The peculiar kicking action and pointed draperies of the two lower angels, with the disordered locks and interesting eager face of one of them (the best point in the picture) are of themselves enough, I think, to say, not Florence, but Siena. A writer in the *Saturday Review* has already referred the piece to the Siennese school, and no doubt rightly; although, of the names there brought together from divers times and tendencies in the school, one only has any application. That is Sano di Pietro, "the Angelico of Siena" as he has been called; and by Sano di Pietro, or else Matteo di Giovanni di Bartolo, called Matteo da Siena, I am confident that this picture is. Midway between these pendants, on the same wall, hangs a work full and brimming over with the spirit, the animation and multifariousness, of Florentine life in the fifteenth century. This is the round of the *Adoration* (184), which belonged to the Barker collection, and which, for all it has suffered, one would almost have been glad to see added, as so many prizes from that collection were added, to the National Gallery. When a painting shows the manner of Lippo Lippi, but adds to it certain other qualities—a particular passion for birds and beasts, an extreme delight in multitude and processional pomp and animation—then the natural name to give it is Pesellino. Francesco di Stefano, called Pesellino from his grandfather Peselli, was a close imitator of Lippo Lippi, but added to his manner the predilections I have named, and in his turn handed them on to Benozzo Gozzoli. They assert themselves in every inch of this dramatic panel. Certainly the work is of the nearest possible kindred to those we know of Pesellino in Florence. But between Pesellino and Lippo Lippi in such cases the distinction is

fine, and there is, perhaps, no reason to quarrel with the accepted title which gives this work to the greater master. What invention! what vivacity and variety! The stall in the middle of the view is not only a stall for ox and ass, but a stable full of horses, and farriers busy shoeing them; upon its roof struts a peacock; in front of it a gold pheasant and a silver pheasant fly across. The Holy Family are in the foreground; the shepherds have come in by a rocky way, humble peasants and out at elbows; the foremost of the kings has just knelt to kiss with humility the feet of the baby. And behind the kings, such a retinue!—made up of all the richest embassies that the painter had seen file through the streets of Florence on their way to their lodgings at Santa Maria Novella or in the house of Cosimo; riders on horses, riders on camels, the foremost awe-stricken, with doffed bonnets and hands clasped or extended as they come within sight of the holy family; those in the rear gay and chatting. The van of the procession appears from under an archway on the left; its centre is out of sight behind the great block of classical ruins upon which the stall abuts; its rear reappears further off on the right, and is closed by a press of faces high up against the horizon, showing that there is no end to those who have yet to come. And the population of Bethlehem, which is the population of Florence, has turned out to see: mothers with their babies, beggars, idiots, and a little company of the naked who have hurried up, I suppose, either from bathing or from the hospital. It is all delightfully simple and vivid and honest, and full of quaint life and observation and character. Another Lippo Lippi, this time unquestionable, is the Virgin with four angels, numbered 185. This is a very beautiful and characteristic piece, with its roguish boy angels, and its setting of the Virgin's head in front of a little space of sky and roses over-canopied with meeting gold wings. And it has a capital pendant in the Crivelli (No. 182, and the property of the same owner, Mr. Graham); a Virgin with the bony fingers this painter loved, and with all his force spent in the patterning of her dark gold cloak with its dark red lining, and in the imitative rendering of the fly, the pear, the cracked marble dais lettered with his own signature—things in which also his soul delighted after its half grim, half childish, wholly intense fashion. Luca Signorelli, the learned and fearless master who was for Central Italy in the fifteenth century what Mantegna was for the North, is so rare out of his own country that one is delighted to see this fragment of a *Deposition* (177)—one man stooping with his pincers on a ladder, and a couple of soldiers with their tight jerkins and striped hose in the landscape. The principal figure is a model whose vigorous head, tanned and bald with a few white tufts, occurs over and over again in Signorelli's frescoes painted in 1497 and 1498 at Monte Oliveto in the parts about Siena; this fragment has certainly come from some altar-piece done by him about that period. Coming to the days of crowning perfection: here are the two painters of Florence who, at the hour of art's consummation, were wont to join with the most of freedom and sweetness and facility the least of individual character and invention. I mean Andrea del Sarto and Fra Bartolommeo: here they are in two examples, from the collection of Mr. Cook, good in spite of injury and restoration (172, 176). The panel of St. Sebastian (178), claimed by its inscription as a work of Raphael in his first Perugian time, must be left to the debate of experts. I do not see that there is anything in the somewhat prim carefulness and ascetic precision of this nude to positively contradict the inscription; but it is a very delicate matter to decide on internal evidence between one and another of the young unformed scholars of Perugino in such cases. And about the other Sebastian from the collection of Sir William Miles (167) I have still less to say. Its subject is not doubtful: even the all-accepting Waagen, in his account of Leigh Court, protested

against its being called, as it still is, a portrait of William Tell. But its author is very doubtful. Be he who he may—and he cannot be Holbein—the picture is an admirably thorough and careful piece of design, with a masterly piece of work in the foreshortened left hand especially.

Of the Venetian pictures, few this year are of the sacred order. Lord Yarborough sends a Magdalen of Titian (136), which cannot, I think, be by any weaker hand than the master's own. It is the same as his well-known Magdalen in the Pitti. Among replicas of the subject, says Dr. Waagen, "with few exceptions, it surpasses all others, not only in transparency and warmth of colouring, but in elevation of expression." To find elevation of expression in the upturned face and streaming eyes of this stout Venetian woman, whom Mr. Ruskin once called "the disgusting Magdalen of the Pitti," is not easy; but warmth and transparency, the Titianic splendour, are unmistakable in her hair, her blanket, her book, and the noble landscape on the right. The small *Deposition* of Tintoret, from the same collection (128), is also a very characteristic piece in undefaced golden tones; the landscape, with its near foliage and distant temple, the vehement graceful Maries about the corpse, are all flung in with the same headlong certainty that makes the art of Tintoret so stirring to look at, even when, for speed and carelessness, his art is almost manufacture.

And with this last of the great Venetians we leave the schools of Italy for good, so far as religious art is concerned. There are no examples to detain us of Tintoret's contemporaries of Bologna, or of their successors in the seventeenth century; and if there were, there is always something depressing in the study of those accomplished Diadochi of the art, whose accomplishment is so much more patent than their inspiration, and who wrought for the austere and militant Papacy after the Reformation in a spirit so different from that which had inspired their predecessors in the service of the humane and joyous Papacy of the Renaissance. It is in Spain that austere and militant Catholicism, the Catholicism of the Inquisition, finds its really imaginative and original expression in art. Of the great painters who flourished when bigotry and luxury ruled hand in hand at the court of Philip IV., Zurbaran is at once the most imaginative and the most austere. He is a great religious, at any rate a great monastic painter; and these two large single figures of Benedict and Jerome, from the gallery of Lord Heytesbury, represent him well (197, 200). Nothing is more masterly than these strong ascetic heads, than these conventual robes falling in broad folds and strong planes of light and shadow; nothing strikes a more appropriate note than this cleft of penitential landscape behind either saint—dark gorges of the Sierras, where white or lurid clouds roll solemnly overhead, and where from lonely rock to rock echoes no sound but the hermit's litany. Near the same place is hung a Virgin Annunciate of the Spanish school, a kneeling figure in full face, with arms extended, the atmosphere about her a golden cloud. This is very strongly and thoroughly drawn, and the dark crimson cloak of the Virgin an admirable piece of grave work. It comes from the gallery of Sir W. Miles, and is ascribed to Velazquez. As such I see that Sir William Stirling Maxwell allows it in both his catalogues—I mean that in his *Annals of the Artists of Spain*, and his *Velazquez and his Works*. If it is by Velazquez, it is not in the manner of his maturity, and can only be the picture he is recorded to have painted of this subject while a boy in the studio of Pacheco at Seville. On a question of Spanish art I speak without book; but is not this rather the hand of Velazquez' distinguished contemporary Alonso Cano?

To most of us, I dare say, the religious art that grew up in the seventeenth century among the Protestant rebels of the Catholic king in the North

will mean more—as indeed it was a thing more profound and new—than that which filled the churches and monasteries of his orthodox kingdom in the South. Here are two capital examples of that artist who, in the cities of Holland, saw in a new light the aspects of rags and squalor and calamity. The Queen's *Adoration of the Magi* (152) has in perfection all the elements which in Rembrandt made up such a strange unprecedented poetry; his love of gloom and faint bituminous light to bring out the solidity and at the same time the glamour of things; his intense popular sympathy and insight into poverty and suffering; his passion for grotesque Oriental properties and fripperies. The peasant mother, with her heavily-swathed babe upon her lap, sits in the night outside the shed; the star of Bethlehem lets down its light, an oily reddish perpendicular ray, from above; the thatch of the shed stands out in the gleam, and in dark shadow under the eave you can see the figure of Joseph. One king kneels forward with his gift, and two attendants kneel behind him; the two other kings with their attendants stand waiting, almost lost in the darkness is a group under a circular umbrella. Rembrandt, as usual, has taken his models from the Jewry of Amsterdam and dressed them in their own stock-in-trade; and the character, the poetry, the splendour of handling, the sense of the real and the familiar amid the unreal and the strange, of I know not what humour and mystery and solemn pitifulness, need no words for those who have eyes to see. The second Rembrandt (153) comes from the collection of the Duke of Abercorn. It is a large *Deposition*, with figures in life-size, quite different in composition from those versions of the subject which exist in the National Gallery and at St. Petersburg, and, I think, at Berlin. The body of Christ lies across the front of the picture, upon a white shroud, the right arm making a particularly ungainly angle. Rembrandt when he attempted to be academical left his genius behind; and this Christ is an ineffective study of that kind, with a head of some academical beauty but little of Rembrandt's intenser power. Where the painter is himself is in the accessory heads—a silver-bearded Joseph of Arimathea stooping over the corpse; a Magdalen with her hand upon her brow leaning in a faint gold light against the cross; above all, a Mary Mother holding the head of Christ, her own head coiled in pale red and white, a faint light bringing out the colour of her features with a mysterious life and reality.

It scarcely occurs to one to think of the work of Rubens as sacred art. The spirit of worldliness and the delight of the eye and the pride of life, luxury and power and opulence not without vulgarity, make the art of the great Fleming a thing the most unlike in the world to the art of the great Dutchman. There are compositions of Rubens finer in the same violent gorgeous way than this great *Conversion of St. Paul* (110) with its plunging horses and rolling Roman soldiers; but this, together with the Duke of Sutherland's *Holy Family* (107) serves justly enough to represent him in the series.

And lastly, what has the English school to show us in the way of sacred art? Only two life-sized pictures of Sir Joshua Reynolds (229, 242), from his great composition for the window of New College at Oxford: subject, the Angel appearing to the Shepherds. The angel is not here; only a shepherd-boy and his dog in one piece, and two grown-up shepherds in the other. The best thing is the dog: he stands among the fictitious drums and capitals of a fallen temple; but his head has all that vivacity and delicate air, with which the pet spaniel follows his mistress across the sward in so many radiant canvases of the same master. But what shall be said of the rest? Dull ugly colour without the master's charm; one of the shepherds a portrait, not good, of Sir Joshua himself, in a serge tunic, with a staff and bare calves; his companion a theatrical profile, with

extended arms; the execution empty and pretentious. It is plain the English school is here engaged upon what it does not understand. It is plain that this is not a new phase of creative genius in the religious order to put beside the mysticism of Siena, or the multifarious vitality of Florence, or the splendour of Venice, or the austerity of Spain, or the rushlit pathos and democratic Christianity of Holland, or even the commoner and more carnal pomp and energy and glow of Flanders.

SIDNEY COLVIN.

THE WATER-COLOUR SOCIETY.

(Second Notice.)

WE return to this exhibition to give some account of the landscapes and other miscellaneous works.

Mr. Albert Goodwin sends various Italian studies, distinguished by delicate exactness in a light and bright key of colour, somewhat flat and mosaic-like in touch; the painter being evidently bent upon distinguishing the local tints, with comparative indifference to the total effect of light and shade. For years past, he has been painting in a very methodical and tentative spirit. The present works mark a further stage in his practice; and we expect to see him pretty soon in full possession of his powers, both as colourist and as chiaroscuroist. The *Market-place, Verona*, and the *Assisi*, are very attractive examples; *San Zenon* (not "Sanoni," as in the catalogue), *Verona*, is carried somewhat further, but with hardly so pleasing a result. Two studies of *Sea and Sky* should also be looked at; and the little piece of still-life, *Six Inches of Jersey Granite*. Professor Ruskin exhibits four studies, which, though minute and the contrary of robust in manner, are not properly to be called slight, being replete with knowledge and discrimination. The *Glacier des Bossons, Chamouni, October 1874*, is especially interesting in its variety of tender yet brilliant shades of colour; also the *View Drawn on Etna, April 26, 1874*. The *Acanthus changing to Acacia, Thirteenth Century, Capital in Main Street of Assisi*, is one of those pieces of architectural decorative design which no draughtsman reproduces with more refined appreciation than Professor Ruskin. Miss Clara Montalba shows very uncommon talent in this gallery. She has great quickness of perception and readiness of resource; likes a large number of different things; and conveys the spirit of them in her rapid characteristic painter-like way. She tends overmuch, however, to the blotty and grimy in handling; as for instance in the *Sketch on the Thames, Limehouse Creek*—which is none the less true and bold. The *Study of Birch-trees at Nääs, Sweden*, is very prettily and spontaneously touched off: the *Rainy Day, Venice*, renders with observable insight the drenched depth of defined colour which distinguishes the Venetian atmospheric effect under such conditions. Other specimens by this lady, of a different quality, are not at all inferior to these. Mr. Powell's sea-pictures mark a high point of attainment in the expression of pale and hazy effect: the light broods within a yellowish whitish veil, which obstructs and yet diffuses it. This is particularly apparent in the *Loch Fyne Herring Boats, Morning*, and in the smaller subject named No. 135 G. K.—*Syra in the Greek Archipelago*, by Mr. Andrews, is a resolute effort at obtaining absolute brightness, and a fairly successful one. Mr. Edward Goodall exhibits one of the most prominent landscape-compositions here, under the title, *Son of Man, can these bones live? And I answered, O Lord God, thou knowest (Ezekiel)*. Near the Great Pyramid of Sakkara: Excavations at the Tombs under the direction of Marretti Bey. When one sees a title of this sort, one knows that the painter has been putting forth his strength, hoping to attain greatness, or to be thought to have attained it; likewise one knows that, if he does not happen really to be a great man, it will not be easy for him to appear such, however high-pitched

his subject-matter. Mr. Goodall gives us pyramids, rubbish-heaps, mummy-cases, skulls, bones, jackals, and carrion-birds; and comes out of the ordeal with a certain amount of credit—as much as could reasonably be expected. Regarding other landscape exhibitors, we need perhaps do no more than call attention to some of the contributions of Messrs. Hale, Dodgson, Read, Cox, Whaithe, Branwhite, North, Danby, and Marks. We regret to miss Mr. Boyce, whose pleasant, sensible, simple feeling in subject and general treatment, and natural grace and harmony in colour and method, are not to be exactly compensated for by any of his colleagues, however skilful.

The chief animal-subject is the *Sudden Attack*, by Mr. Brittan Willis, a crayon drawing of a Highland herd amid the wild hill-scenery, with two bulls closing in fight. This is an able work, and, by stretching a point, might even be termed a powerful one. Mr. Basil Bradley's *Sketch of Young Lion and Lionesses born in the Gardens of the Royal Zoological Society in 1872* is an important unexaggerated study, worthy of all commendation: the colour, tawny throughout both in principals and in accessories, is capably managed. Mr. Birket Foster's *Studies of Fish* are clever pieces of still-life—not, however, by any means rivalling what old William Hunt used to give us; and Mrs. Harrison's *Iris* is gracefully done.

W. M. ROSSETTI.

NOTES AND NEWS.

THE Museum of South Kensington has made the important acquisition of a variety of art objects from Persia, collected by Mr. Murdoch Smith, superintendent of the telegraphic establishment in that country. He has sent over a large collection of the siliceous glazed earthenware of Persia, among which are bowls decorated with blue and black flowers, the sides with a pierced pattern filled in with transparent glaze, the "grains de riz" of the French writers, imitated by the Chinese, and reproduced at the manufactory of Sèvres. There is another specimen, also perforated, of dark glaze. Other objects are:—water bottles of bulbous form decorated with brown metallic lustre, and rose-water sprinklers (Golabpash), with richly engraved metal mountings: a number of dishes for rice, from Kashan, with decorations of the brightest blue, one with the typical deer, showing its Chinese derivation, others with green glaze: and rasps for scraping the palms of the hands and soles of the feet in the bath, made in the forms of diminutive ducks and slippers.

The examples of metal work are most elaborate, especially two tall cylindrical pots, probably designed for incense, and some plates of a highly sonorous metal, giving out the clearest, most silvery sounds, are inlaid with pure gold. The other specimens consist of various pieces of marquetry and large wooden spoons, used for sherbet, most delicately carved. This valuable collection has been acquired at a really nominal cost.

OUR readers will have read, in the ACADEMY of the 2nd, the advertisement offering rewards to the amount of 200*l.* for the discovery and conviction of the parties who forged Mr. Linnell's signature to copies of his paintings which have been sold as originals. No clue has yet been obtained. It appears that the parties who have committed the fraud would buy an original picture, obtaining at the same time a receipt, letter, or some document relating to the picture, of which they immediately set to work to produce copies which they sold as originals. Being furnished with the receipt, letter, or other document, amateurs purchased the paintings without a shadow of doubt as to their originality, and the manufacture succeeded to admiration.

A LETTER has been received from Mr. G. F. Watts by the Secretary of the Royal Manchester Institution, in reply to a notification that the Heywood prize had been awarded for his picture

Love and Death, in which Mr. Watts requests the Council to retain the prize in their hands to be awarded in some subsequent year "for the most poetic design, the best picture regarded from the highest point of view."

THE sale of 200 paintings by old masters from the celebrated collection of the Marquis of Salamanca is an event calculated to cause great excitement in the art world of Paris. The Salamanca Gallery is especially remarkable for its fine works of the Spanish school. Several of these have previously found their way to the Hôtel Drouot (as, for instance, Murillo's *Death of Santa Clara*, which was purchased by Lord Dudley, in 1867, for 95,000 francs, and was exhibited a few years ago at the Royal Academy Exhibition of Old Masters); but enough still remain to give considerable importance to the sale. Among the most noteworthy we may mention: an *Immaculate Conception*, not this time by Murillo, but by the bold Ribera, who has represented the Virgin in this picture as a magnificent noble woman, with none of the affectation and prettiness of Murillo; two small portraits of Philip IV. and his wife, probably sketches for the large pictures at Madrid; and two admirable *genre* subjects, the *Interior of the Posada* and *The King's Fox-catcher*, by Velasquez; a *Penitent*, by Zurbaran; *Santa Rosa of Lima*, and six paintings of biblical subjects, by Murillo; several paintings by Goya; a large and fine work by Cerezo of *The Appearance of the Virgin to St. Francis*; and *The Communion of St. Theresa*, an interesting painting by the little-known Portuguese painter Alonso Sanchez Coelho. The paintings of the Italian school of this collection cannot compare in merit with those of the Spanish. Most of them are evidently wrongly attributed, but there is one little panel, said to be by Raphael, that deserves attention. If not by him, it is by one of the pupils who had most affinity with him. Nor are the works of the Flemish and Dutch schools very remarkable. Here also there are many flagrant cases of wrongly bestowed names. Two authentic Rubens, however, two portraits by Vandyck, a *Presentation in the Temple* by Jordaens, and several works by Teniers, Snyder, Gerard Dow, Adrian van Ostade, and other masters of the Dutch school, have a real value.

It is thought that the Louvre, which is very deficient in examples of the Spanish school, will probably acquire some of the best pictures of this collection. Its sale will take place on the 25th and 26th of this month.

THE following statement appears in several of the Italian papers:—

"The Government have lately taken possession of the criminal archives placed by the late Pontifical Government in the convent of St. Jerome. On examining these documents there was found in a quantity of waste paper to be got rid of, an inventory of the property of Michel Angelo at the time of his death. This inventory was made by order of the Roman Government shortly after hearing of his death. It contains much interesting information: for example, it gives a list of the statues blocked out by Michel Angelo and not completed, which were found in his studio. It also enumerates cartoons designed by him for works in contemplation, and mentions the sum of money in his possession when he died."

This, if true, is certainly interesting; but our Italian correspondent writes to us that on enquiry about these papers, he was told that they were in reality of little consequence. It is, in fact, very difficult to find out the exact truth of the various reports in circulation respecting the Buonarroti documents. For example, the most contradictory statements have been made respecting the number of letters written by and to Michel Angelo that are to be published at the approaching centenary. Many papers have stated that there were about 700 autographic letters, others 200, and others a different number. Even Italian authorities on the subject have blundered almost as much as foreigners. According to the most trustworthy information

that we can gain, the number of letters is—350 written by Michel Angelo himself, and as many probably as 1,400 written to and about him.

THE French Academy of Fine Arts has elected M. Abadie member of the section of architecture, in the place of M. Gilbert; M. Lefuel, of the section of architecture, president, and M. Meissonier, of the section of painting, vice-president for 1875.

THE death is announced of M. Guillaume Régamey, the distinguished painter of military scenes, and winner of a medal at the last Salon (see ACADEMY, vol. v. p. 556).

MR. C. HEATH WILSON is engaged in an elaborate examination of the frescoes in the Sistine Chapel, for which purpose he has been supplied by the Vatican authorities with a scaffolding of more than 50 feet in height. On the state of the frescoes he writes as follows:—

"I have seen those on the vault of the Sistine under the most favourable circumstances possible, to learn with a conviction settled and immovable that these are the greatest and the most perfectly executed works of fresco painting in the world. They have been frightfully ill-used. It is not smoke only which has damaged these immortal works, but rude and barbarous hands have been there. I think that the damage might be remedied. The *Last Judgment* has been so repainted in many parts as to be in no respect—I mean in point of general effect and chiar'oscuro—what Michel Angelo made it; but the vault frescoes at any rate have not thus been used, they are for the most part free from barbarous and monstrous retouching; but portions have been scoured, I know not when, by working masons, I suppose, for no other hands could have used them so; but the divine painting, although soiled, is there as he left it, as it came from his hands and mind, in all its majesty, its beauty and its absolutely matchless technical skill, and reverent hands might remove cobwebs and dust, and might stop gaping cracks and clean away smoke—for the frescoes are hard and sound. I wiped away cobwebs with a silk handkerchief, and a dark accumulation of this from the breast of Adam. As these hung down in dirty festoons, veiling beauties, I could easily with a light sweep, not touching the surface, cause these accumulations of, I suppose, some generations of spiders to fall down in dusty dusky filaments.

"I am quite persuaded that the picture of the *Last Judgment* was originally harmonised by Michel Angelo with the ceiling, with all his matchless skill—its dissonance has been caused by the work of later times, and in some places it has been mended by hands not trained in any knowledge of art at all."

THE *Nation* tells us a long story about a little picture, of which Mr. Morris Moore is the owner, and which he believes to be by Raphael. There has been endless confusion as to its attribution; for it was bought for an Andrea Mantegna, and was pronounced by Passavant to be of the school of Francesco Francia—probably the work of Timoteo Viti of Urbino. In Venice, in the collection of the Academy, was found a pencil-drawing of the composition, but this drawing had been ascribed neither to Mantegna, nor to Raphael, nor to Timoteo Viti; but to Benedetto Montagna. Whose the picture is, seems still an undecided question. Mr. Moore says Raphael, and wishes, thinks the *Nation*, to sell it to an American. The picture represents Marsyas seated on the left, playing on his flute, while in full front stands Apollo listening to the music of his rival.

THE election of members of the constituent commission of the National Society of Artists, formed on the proposition of M. de Chennevières, took place in Paris on Sunday last. The following were elected:—Sculpture (eight members), MM. Paul Dubois, Guillaume, Cabot, Soitoux, Falguière, Mathurin-Moreau, Marcelin, Carrier-Bellense; Architecture (four members), MM. Viollet-le-Duc, Labrousse, Ballu, Boeswillvald; Engraving (five members), MM. Henri-Dupont, Veyrassat, Sirouy, Boëzel, Marcial; Painting (fourteen members), MM. Corot, Fromentin, Gérôme, J. Breton, Daubigny, Lajolais, Bonnat, Vollon, Luminais, Chaplin, Bonvin, Feyen-Perrin, Français, Gaillaumet.

PROFESSOR OVERBECK has been lecturing at the Scientific Institution of Cologne on the character of the plastic *genre* sculpture of the ancient Greeks, and on the productions of the moderns compared with the best remains of Hellenic art.

THE STAGE.

"THE NEW MAGDALEN" AT THE CHARING CROSS THEATRE.

MR. WILKIE COLLINS'S *New Magdalen* has reappeared on the London stage, after a career of nearly two hundred nights in the country, following, at no great interval, upon a career of equal length in London. Reproduced last Saturday before our town playgoers, at the Charing Cross Theatre, it was received with approval, and the generally colder audience of a second night confirmed on Monday the verdict of the first. The success of *The New Magdalen* is, then, an accomplished fact; and one is only concerned to know the cause of it, and to see how far it is justified.

Great stress has been laid upon the moral pointed by Mr. Collins's drama; but those are little familiar with London audiences who lay any part of the success of the play to the credit of its teaching. Here and again very forcibly, the teaching is insisted on by passages of vigorous dialogue addressed in truth to the audience, but the most that the audience does is to lend itself for a moment to listen to this and to applaud it. In good time, it is forgotten, and the audience does not in reality so much applaud the cause as the cleverness of its advocate—an advocate who, strongly possessed with his theme, has done unconsciously what the wily Guido, in *The Ring and the Book*, did consciously—that is, he has mingled truth and sophistry so that his listeners are baffled. And if in narrative "the mixture of a lie doth ever add pleasure," certainly in advocacy the mixture of a truth is of incalculable value to a bad cause. A little truth will leaven a lump of sophistry; and Mr. Collins's sophistry is leavened with much more than a little truth.

No wonder then, that it is momentarily accepted by an audience moved by the art of his story: no wonder that the people's sympathy with the heroine's misfortune and admiration for the Broad Church clergyman who at some cost to himself endeavours to relieve it in unconventional ways, make them half believe for a moment that the Broad Church clergyman is wisdom itself when, preparing, like Micawber, to quit England, with his bride from the Refuge, he "despises the Old World's narrow prejudices, and its superstitions," or when—earlier in the play—having himself been generous and forgiving to the New Magdalen, he propounds the monstrous proposition that "the best among us to-day may be the worst to-morrow." His personal charity, his excellent truths or truisms about the labourer's right to live, make this last nonsense palatable; but if Julian Gray had thought a little longer, he would have seen that even if best men are moulded out of faults, they are *moulded*, not changed in the twinkling of an eye, and would have remembered—that he must quite well have known—that the whole of life, and not one single act in it, makes good or bad. His utterance was not to the credit of his head; but he is a fine fellow, after all, and will doubtless learn his mistake in that New World to which he goes so hopefully—the good New World, free as of course it is sure to be, from every fault of the old. He will not better his heart, in the good New World, but he will mature his judgment.

The approval of the audience then is with him, just while he speaks, but when the curtain falls the moral of the play is forgotten, if indeed the moral really meant is that the new Magdalen is likely to be better at heart and more forgiving than the unsophisticated girl whose place she has usurped. Be this as it may, it is not the moral—good in its teaching of general charity: bad in its

insinuation of almost universal uncharitableness—that makes the success of the piece, or is its chief source of interest. Mr. Wilkie Collins's judgment on certain social questions may have played him false; but his genius of construction has been true to him. And it is not because the work teaches something of the lesson taught by M. Dumas in *Le Fils de Madame Aubry*, and by a younger dramatist, Mr. Gilbert, in *Charity*, that the work succeeds. *Charity* didn't succeed; yet its lesson was the soundest of the three. *The New Magdalen* succeeds because it shows all the constructive power which bound us with a spell in the *Woman in White*. Briefly, *The New Magdalen*, considered as an acting piece, is the strongest thing the stage has seen during many years.

There is not an unnecessary character, there is not an unnecessary scene in it. Hardly is there a superfluous word. The exposition of the story and its development are as lucid and succinct as ever was the summing up of any judge in court of justice. The curtain rises on an incident of the war—the Germans occupy a position from which the French retire. Grace Roseberry, the Canadian girl nursed by a woman who was an outcast, is seemingly dead; the outcast will take her place in the new society which will never have a chance of discovering the imposture. The new Grace Roseberry passes through the German lines, in charge of an English journalist, and at that moment a German surgeon, by an operation unknown to the French, is restoring the real Grace Roseberry to life and consciousness. The first act of the play itself sees Mercy Merrick comfortably settled in the other's place: a rich young man is making love to her, and she has won the regard of Lady Janet Roy. This is success in life. And the first act ends with the arrival of the real Grace Roseberry and her recognition of Mercy Merrick as the woman from the Refuge who had nursed her in the German war. The second act is stronger still. At its beginning Mercy Merrick is still safely in Grace Roseberry's place. No one doubts her story—the story of the other is that of a madwoman. The clergyman, Julian Gray, involves himself in the affair, and while secretly loving Lady Janet's protégée, his duty prompts him alone to see that absolute justice is done to the new comer. At length Mercy Merrick confesses to him her deception, and he waits to hear her confess it to the rest. This she is almost in act to do, when the superfluous taunts of the real Grace Roseberry change for a moment her purpose, and there is a remarkable moment for the audience—a great one for the actress—when Mercy Merrick, stung by these taunts, defies her, and in token of a new persistence calls her aloud, not Grace Roseberry, but Mercy Merrick. This is a scene weak to narrate, but powerfully conceived and powerfully executed. At last contrition does its work on the one woman, or, to speak more truly, the sympathy which is lacking to the other. She cannot see Grace Roseberry carried away to a madhouse. So she makes a clean breast of it, and in the next act, after having proved the heartlessness of every body else, goes away with Julian Gray to that new country which is the Paradise of people who can't get on in this. Were one disposed to go a little deeper into Mr. Collins's work, it wouldn't be a difficult task to show that Mercy Merrick, with her hardness and her contrition, is inconsistent beyond the limits of human inconsistency; and certainly one might decline to give her all the author's credit for virtue when she makes the confession which in common honesty Julian Gray would have made—however unwillingly—had she herself withheld it. But we are not occupied with these things. We have been occupied with showing why the piece has succeeded. Too much, it seems to us, has been made of a dubious moral: too little of a construction of undeniable power.

As a whole, the acting is adequate; and good acting is demanded. Those who know Miss Ada

Cavendish's method of play will hardly need to be told that she is best of all in the finesse of comedy, good in the strongest situations of melodrama, and much less satisfactory in passages which an actress of pure pathos might have made veritably pathetic. Of course she has studied the character carefully—small praise to an actress who means to be an artist, for doing only that—and the result of her study is the composition of a stage figure which is generally interesting, nearly always effective, and rarely touching. Now and again the stage effectiveness, so tempting, even so fitting to the character, is laid aside, and then Miss Cavendish is not only accomplished, but strong—strong at the angered moment where she defies Grace Roseberry: strong in the scene with Horace, in her expression of feverish anxiety, nervous fear, nervous laughter. As Lady Janet Roy, Miss R. G. le Thière makes a picturesque figure, and plays with thorough comprehension of a character not easy to make attractive, for undoubtedly Lady Janet Roy is more imperious than lovable. Miss K. Rivers is Grace Roseberry. It is not her fault if Grace is hard and forbidding. The actress has realised the novelist's conception, and deserves praise for that. There are only two other characters of importance: the young lover and the Broad Church clergyman. Mr. Leonard Boyne represents the first very well, and Mr. Markby acts the second better than he looks him. The piece, then, is well played—sensibly, intelligently, yet with no fine finish or fine impulse. As these people pass before you, you watch the puzzle out, hardly touched by any one's fortunes, but interested in all.

FREDERICK WEDMORE.

The Lady of Lyons, which was performed at last Saturday's *matinée* at the Gaiety, will be repeated at the same place to-day. Every one was glad to see Mr. and Mrs. Kendal on the London stage again, though a more sympathetic part than that of Pauline might have been wished for the actress.

The Two Roses has come at a quick pace to its end at the Vaudeville. A few weeks since it seemed immortal, there; but now it is gone, and its place to-night will be filled by Mr. Byron's new comedy.

ONE pantomime has disappeared already—that at the Holborn Amphitheatre, where *Cinderella* has been withdrawn, and the classic *Madame Angot* come to the rescue.

ON Thursday evening—too late for any notice in our columns this week—a new comedietta was to be brought out at the Court Theatre; Miss Marie Litton playing the principal part.

FOR one melodrama the Adelphi has substituted another. *A Prayer in the Storm* is succeeded by *A Dream at Sea*. The author does not count for much in these pieces, where the scene-painter and machinist are persons of importance. Mr. James Fernandez, Miss Hudspeth, and Miss Stuart are among the chief performers in the melodrama now performing.

MILIE MANETTI plays Clairette in *La Fille de Madame Angot* at the Philharmonic, and Lange is played by Miss Katrine Monroe, who played it last at the Gaiety. The performance is in no way a remarkable one, but may draw people during a few weeks of the holidays.

THE last performances of *Two Orphans* are taking place at the Olympic, where Mr. Albany's new comedy is ready to succeed the famous melodrama.

CHARLES SELBY'S funny little piece, called *Drawing the Line*, is brightly played at the Charing Cross Theatre, before Mr. Wilkie Collins's drama, which is noticed duly in another place. Mr. Macklin, Mr. Charlton, Miss Edith Lynd, and Miss Burney are the performers of the farce.

M. PIERRE BERTON, it is stated, has been offered by the new manager of the Paris Vaudeville an engagement sufficiently brilliant to induce him to leave the Théâtre Français. A good thing, this, for the frequenters of the Vaudeville, who will thus see one of the best young leading actors on the Paris stage. During his stay at the Français, Pierre Berton's light has been under a bushel. They have given him bad parts and unsuitable parts to play, and no one has gained thereby. At the Vaudeville, where no long-established rights of other people will block his way, we may expect more than a repetition of the success which he obtained at the Odéon. His performances at the "second Théâtre Français," in *Le Bâtard*, in *L'Autre* of George Sand, and *Le Rendezvous* of François Coppée, will always afford pleasant recollections to those who witnessed them.

COMMERCIALY, the year at the Théâtre Français has been one of the utmost prosperity. The receipts have never been as great as in the twelve-month just passed. But when it is remembered that the sensational performance of the *Sphinx* contributed as much as anything to the financial success, the result will not seem to be one so very worthy of congratulation. Latterly *Le Demi-Monde*, accepted by all Paris critics as the master work of Dumas, has maintained the receipts of the theatre at a high level. The *Chaine*, of Scribe, has been less popular, and the revival of *Phèdre* was undertaken with an intention purely artistic.

GEORGE SAND'S *Marquis de Villemer*—her best contribution to dramatic literature—was performed at the Gaité *matinée* last Sunday; Porel, Talien, Léonide Leblanc and Blanche Baretta, of the Odéon, taking the principal parts.

La Vie Infernale, a drama by Georges Richard, from a romance of Gaboriau's, has been produced with fair success at the Théâtre de Cluny.

THE *Débats* devotes a good deal of space to the discussion of the prospects and position of a very important Paris theatre—the Vaudeville—which hopes by the appointment of a new manager to have seen the last of its bad days. "It has passed," says the *Débats*, into new hands." "La tâche est lourde, mais ni l'intelligence ni le courage ne manquent aux hommes qui l'ont acceptée. Ils auront tout d'abord à lutter contre des difficultés de toute nature, car ils prennent possession d'une maison en quelque sorte démeublée, où tout manque. La désorganisation est complète: pas de répertoire, pas de troupe, au sens vrai du mot, et avec cela le préjugé défavorable qui s'attache à un théâtre 'enguignonné' depuis longtemps, si l'on peut employer ce mot. Les choses ne sont pourtant pas désespérées, et l'on a vu des malades revenir de plus loin. Le Vaudeville a un passé glorieux, et son nom seul évoque les plus brillants souvenirs. Que d'auteurs et d'acteurs célèbres ont fait son illustration! Il a toujours compté au premier rang parmi nos scènes de genre nécessaires, et un tel théâtre ne saurait disparaître."

SPEAKING of the dramatic year just passed in Paris, M. Caraguel, who seems above the consideration of popular successes, says: "The theatrical year just dead has not been marked by any memorable event. Things have followed their accustomed train. New works have been numerous, but none has risen above an honest mediocrity."

MUSIC.

MONDAY POPULAR CONCERTS.

THOUGH the first concert since Christmas, which took place last Monday, offered no absolute novelty in the instrumental portion of the programme, it was noteworthy for the first appearance at these entertainments of one of the best pianists now before the public—Mdlle. Marie Krebs. To her, therefore, the place of honour should be given in this notice. Mdlle. Krebs is a pleasing, though unfortunately not very common, example of a wonderful child who has developed into a still

more wonderful young woman. In the case of infant prodigies there is always more or less reason to dread the fate of the immortal Mr. Toots, and to fear that a remarkable gifted childhood may be followed by a, to put it mildly, very commonplace maturity. Happily, however, both for Mdlle. Krebs and for our musical public, she has proved an exception to the too frequent rule. With years, her intellect as well as her fingers have developed; and she has come back to us now no longer a remarkable child, but a finished artist. She paid a visit to this country last season, after the conclusion of the Monday Popular Concerts, which accounts for the fact of the present being her first appearance there. She selected for her solo Bach's Prelude and Fugue in A minor, entitled in the programme "Alla Tarantella." It would be interesting to know by whom this title was given; it is certainly not due to Bach himself; it is indeed doubtful whether in his time the old dance, which was originally in common time, had assumed its modern form and rhythm at all. Some modern editor has probably re-christened it because the subject happens to be in triplets; but there are several other of Bach's fugues which might just as correctly bear the same name. Apart, however, altogether from this point, the fugue is one of the old master's finest and most genial works, and the prelude which precedes it is perhaps even more beautiful. Both are excessively difficult; but Mdlle. Krebs has arrived at that enviable stage of proficiency in which no such thing as difficulty any longer exists for her. Of her performance on Monday it is simply impossible to speak too highly. The distinctness of her passages and the clearness of her phrasing—the first requisites in Bach's music—were absolutely perfect; nor with all this mechanical accuracy was there, as sometimes happens, any hardness or frigidity. The expression was all that could be desired; and the effect upon the audience of her truly marvellous performance was so great that nothing less than three recalls would satisfy them. In Beethoven's great trio in B flat (with Herr Straus and Signor Piatti), Mdlle. Krebs showed her competency as an exponent of concerted music; while the concluding number in the programme, Schubert's Fantasia in C, Op. 159, was another piece of wonderful execution. This very fine work is one of the few by its composer the date of which is unknown. From the internal evidence of style, one would be inclined to class it among Schubert's later works. It possesses the same breadth of development, boldness of modulation, and melodic charm as the Rondo in B minor (also for piano and violin) or the two pianoforte trios, all of which works were produced in the last years of their composer's life. Owing to the great demands it makes on both players, it is but seldom heard in public; such a performance, therefore, as it received from Mdlle. Krebs and Herr Straus was a genuine treat to the Monday Popular audience. The opening number of the programme was Mendelssohn's early quintet in A, a truly remarkable work for a lad of seventeen, but showing occasionally (a very rare thing with Mendelssohn), some tendency to diffuseness. Notwithstanding this, the charm of the subjects and the skill with which they are treated is so great that the work will always be heard with interest. It was performed by Messrs. Straus, L. Ries, Zerbini, Burnett and Piatti; and though Herr Straus seemed not altogether at his ease (being apparently troubled with a refractory "first string"), the rendering was an excellent one. The vocalist was Miss Edith Wynne, and Mr. Zerbini conducted. Next Monday will be a "Mendelssohn night," when Mdlle. Norman-Néruda is announced as leader, and Miss Agnes Zimmermann as pianist.

Ebenezer Prout.

THE Crystal Palace Saturday Concerts will be resumed this afternoon, after the usual Christmas recess. From what we learn of the projected

arrangements, there is every reason to expect that the remaining concerts of the season will be fully equal in interest and instructiveness to those that have already taken place.

THE Royal Albert Hall Concerts are to be recommenced on Thursday next, the 21st—not on the 19th, as originally proposed, and announced in our columns last week. At the first concert the great violinist Herr August Wilhelmj will make his first appearance for several years in this country. The event will be one of interest, as Herr Wilhelmj is ranked by many German musical critics as equal, and by some as even superior, to Joachim.

THE last number of the *Revue et Gazette Musicale de Paris* contains a long article from the pen of M. Adolphe Jullien on the opening of the New Opera House. The critic very justly blames the management for giving a series of selections instead of some representative work. He says that they "transformed into a gala evening worthy of being offered to the Shah of Persia this solemn inauguration, which might have been a sort of musical festival, and of homage offered to the masters of genius who have for two centuries adorned the French opera." He adds that "the inauguration of the Opera, as it took place, has appeared to deny the musical history of France, and to ignore the glorious part played by our country in the development of dramatic music." He nevertheless speaks with high praise of the *débütante*, Mdlle. Krauss, who in two acts of *La Juive* showed the possession of great dramatic and lyric power.

It is interesting to note how German music seems at length to be making its way in France. At the last concert of the Conservatoire, three movements from the "Credo" of Bach's great Mass in B minor were included in the programme; while at M. Pasdeloup's popular concert on the same day, Brahms's Serenade in D was to be produced for the first time. Last Thursday the *Messiah* was announced, under the direction of M. Lamoureux, our excellent artist, Mdlle. Patey, being engaged for the contralto music.

WEBER'S *Oberon* has just been produced for the first time at Bordeaux, with great success.

A FRENCH Opéra Comique company has been performing with considerable success at Singapore.

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ROYAL GEOGRAPHICAL SOCIETY.

THE CAMERON EXPEDITION FUND.

1 SAVILE ROW, LONDON, W., January 4, 1875.

LIEUTENANT VERNEY L. CAMERON, R.N., Leader of the Livingstone East Coast Aid Expedition, under the direction of the Royal Geographical Society, has, since the attainment of the primary object of his journey, surveyed the unexplored portion of Lake Tanganyika, and he reports that he has discovered the outlet of that great reservoir. He is now attempting to reach the Atlantic coast by following the course of Dr. Livingstone's Lualaba, which he believes to be the Congo; a perilous, arduous, and most expensive enterprise. It has been determined by the Council of the Royal Geographical Society to appeal to the Fellows and the Public for Subscriptions to meet the considerable expense of so great an undertaking.

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